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An Investigation of Factors Related to Enjoyment of Minor
Sport Participation



by

Philip S. J. Kreisel

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
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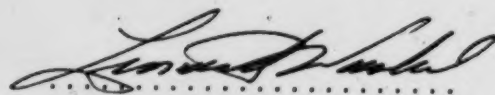
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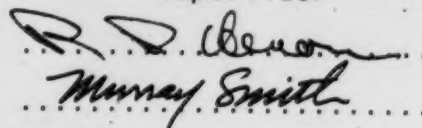
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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled An Investigation of Factors Related to Enjoyment of Minor Sport Participation submitted by Philip S. J. Kreisel in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Recreation Administration.



Supervisor


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Date... APRIL 22, 1982

DEDICATION

To My Parents, Esther and Henry

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to investigate what facets within minor sport programs contribute to or detract from enjoyment. More specifically, the research investigated whether there were differences between sport groups with regard to factors that affected enjoyment and whether there were differences between age groups within a single sport with regard to positive and negative factors that affected enjoyment.

A questionnaire was designed to measure the perceived importance of: ten factors thought to be related to children's enjoyment of sport; four items related to perceived importance of different outcomes from minor sport; and twenty-six factors thought to be detrimental to sport enjoyment. After pilot testing to ensure that the instrument was reliable and appropriate for the age group involved in the study, the questionnaire was administered to the sample under controlled group testing conditions.

Fifty-four participants from baseball teams and 113 participants from soccer constituted the sample for the study. Teams from both sports were selected from the south-east section of the City of Edmonton. The soccer teams were chosen at random across three age divisions, while the baseball teams used in the study represented the total population of teams from the "majors" age division in that area of the city.

The data focusing on the ten enjoyment factors and the four perceived importance factors was analyzed using a paired comparison scaling procedure. Frequency distributions and t-test and oneway analyses of variance procedures, were utilized to analyze the data pertaining to factors disliked about the sport experience.

The results for the ten enjoyment factors showed that those factors seen as being most important to sport participants were those that were related to the individual's desire to play the game well. Factors that focused on skill development (eg. *doing the skills of the game, improving the skills of the game, comparing skills against others*) as well as achievement of a sense of *personal accomplishment* were seen as being important contributors to sport enjoyment. This was the case for baseball participants and for the two oldest age divisions in soccer. The youngest age division participants in soccer enjoyed winning the game and receiving tangible rewards the most when playing the sport.

For the perceived importance factors, both sport groups indicated that *playing well* and *having fun* were more important than *playing fairly* and *winning the game*. For age groups, *winning the game* was rated as being the most important by the youngest age group, while *playing well* and *playing fairly* were the most important to the middle age group. The oldest age group favored the factors *having fun* and *playing well*.

With respect to aspects thought to be detrimental to sport enjoyment, it was found that collectively, participants from both sport samples (spanning all ages) felt that the majority of the factors were not detrimental to sport enjoyment. Although participants seemed relatively satisfied with their sport program, an examination of the responses on an individual basis revealed that many of the variables were detrimental to the enjoyment of a certain percentage of children.

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I. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A. Introduction and Importance of the Study

In today's North American society, people place considerable importance on making good use of their leisure time. To occupy this time, people choose to take part in a multitude of recreational activities ranging from sports to socio-cultural activities (Kleindienst and Weston, 1978). However, recreational activities are not just time fillers; they also serve as particular engagements that are self-rewarding, in and of themselves (Driver and Tocher, 1970). As a result, a person engaged in such an activity will attain feelings of inner satisfaction (Deci, 1975) and ultimately have an enjoyable experience (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975). For school age children, some of the most popular recreational opportunities are found in organized sports programs provided by schools or by local community organizations (Coakley, 1978; McPherson, 1978 b).

Organized sports programs that are provided for children outside the school are important in that they provide supervised activity for children during leisure time. In addition, sports programs give children opportunities for:

The development of the fundamental skills of movement so necessary in all daily activities; essential contributions to the physiological development of the human body; an understanding and knowledge of the care needed by the human body to enable it to function at peak efficiency; the

development of interests and playing skills in a variety of wholesome leisure-time activities; and the realization that recreational activities are one of the best avenues of education leading to group understanding and cooperation. (Kleindienst and Weston, 1978:17)

Although these various positive outcomes of youth sport programs may be possible, they presuppose a period of regular involvement. It then becomes important to study the whole question of motivation for sport involvement in order to better understand factors related to regular participation.

It is generally acknowledged that people participate in recreational activities for varied reasons (Driver and Tocher, 1970; Wankel, 1980). Children involved in sports programs may participate in order to learn how to play the game, or they may be involved for the more subtle, social-psychological characteristics that underlie an activity (eg. being with friends, release of tension, learning to play fairly and cooperate with others) (Gould et al, 1981; Robertson, 1981; Webb, 1969). In most cases, the child may have several reasons for being involved; however, some reasons are predominant over others. The varying reasons for participation may be further affected by such factors as the age of the child, or the child's ability within the activity (Orlick, 1972).

It is not adequate to merely view the concept of enjoyment as a single entity. Generally, writers have been content to indicate that participants like their sport because "it's fun." Such a general comment, however, is of

little value to the program organizer or coach. To more effectively enhance positive experiences of sport or to ensure "fun," more specific information must be identified as to what generally leads to these experiences.

One of the major impediments to increased knowledge both about the negative as well as the positive aspects of the minor sport experience is the lack of appropriate research instruments for investigation in this area. Ash (1978) has noted that there has been a tremendous growth of competitive sport programs for children, but that little analysis has been attempted to measure the effects of those programs. There is not much systematic research available.

The purpose of this study was to address this latter problem, and consequently assist in the development of a research instrument appropriate to this area of research. This was accomplished by investigating the reliability and validity of a new Minor Sport Enjoyment Inventory (MSEI) which has been developed (see Appendix A). The instrument was then used to investigate differences between sports and between age groups concerning the importance of factors affecting enjoyment of the minor sport experience.

B. The Problem

There were two major facets to the proposed study - one pertaining to the development of the Minor Sport Enjoyment Inventory (MSEI); the other pertaining to the use of the inventory to investigate factors related to sport enjoyment.

From these two facets, the following specific purposes were addressed:

1. To investigate the test-retest reliability of the Minor Sport Enjoyment Inventory (MSEI);
2. To gather information pertaining to the validity of the MSEI by investigating the comprehensiveness of the enjoyment factors included in the inventory through performing a content analysis of responses to open-ended questions pertaining to factors most enjoyed and least enjoyed about sport involvement;
3. To investigate differences between age groups in reported positive and negative factors affecting the minor sport experience;
4. To investigate differences between sports (soccer and baseball) in reported positive and negative factors affecting the minor sport experience.

C. Delimitations

The study was delimited to male children aged: 5-7 years (Mini-Mite level); 8-9 years (Mite level); and 10-12 years (Peewee level). All children were members of organized teams within the South-east region of the City of Edmonton, Alberta.

The study was also delimited to the organized sports of baseball and soccer.

The study was delimited to the boys reaction to specific items that focused on enjoyment of sport. No detailed examination was undertaken concerning the

interpersonal relationships between the child and significant others (eg. coach, parents).

D. Limitations

The study was limited by volunteer bias on the part of the participants. Although all team members were requested in advance to be present for the testing session, in many instances, some of the players failed to appear on the day of the testing. As a result, it was impossible to determine the exact reasons why certain sport participants were present as opposed to others who were not. (For example, it cannot be assumed that those who did not take part in the study chose so because they did not like the sport).

Despite the presence of trained researchers during the testing sessions, the study was limited by the subjects' interpretation of the items given in the questionnaire.

The study was limited by the subjects' personal perceptions about the sport at the time of the testing session. As a result, it was possible that an individual may have emphasized certain items over others on the basis of a recent good or bad experience rather than approaching all the items on the basis of how they pertained to the individual's general feelings about the sport.

A fourth limitation of the study resulted from the scheduling of the testing sessions within the sport seasons of baseball and soccer. In order to test all teams at their convenience, testing occurred at different time periods

during the season. It was possible that sport participants tested early in the sport season felt differently about the sport than those tested late in the season, on the basis of knowledge such as game outcomes or personal performances.

E. Definition of Terms

ENJOYMENT - Feelings of pleasure and inner satisfaction derived from engaging in an activity or behavior.

EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION - For any given behavior or activity, an individual is said to be extrinsically motivated if the activity is performed for reasons that are not internal to the activity itself. The enjoyment items considered to be extrinsic in this study were: *being on a team, being with friends, receiving rewards, winning the game and pleasing others* (as similarly defined by Csikszentmihalyi, 1975; Robertson, 1981; Watson, 1975).

INTRINSIC MOTIVATION - For any given behavior or activity, an individual is said to be intrinsically motivated if the activity is performed for no apparent reward except for the satisfaction of doing the activity itself. The enjoyment items considered to be intrinsic in this study were: *excitement of the game, personal accomplishment, doing the skills of the game, comparing skills against others, and improving the skills of the game* (based on Csikszentmihalyi, (1975); Robertson, 1981; Watson, 1975).

LITTLE LEAGUE BASEBALL - The sport of baseball organized and supervised by adults for children of various age groups. Some of the major characteristics of Little League Baseball in the City of Edmonton during the 1981 season were:

1. The season ran from the middle of April to July 1st.
2. There were 8 zones across the city that sponsored Little League Baseball (Confederation Park; Hardisty; Mill Woods; Northgate; Ottewell; Sherwood Park; South Jasper Place; West Jasper Place).
3. Each team usually played two games per week.
4. Playoffs led to City and Provincial championships.
5. The maximum number of players per team was 15. All players dressed for each game.

MINI-MITE LEVEL - A division of minor soccer in which children who participated were under 8 years of age at the time of registration.

MINI-SOCCER - A modification of the regular game of soccer for children aged 5-7 years of age. The number of players on the field was 7 per team; the game was played with a smaller ball, with smaller goals, and on a field that was half the size of a regular field.

MINOR SOCCER - The sport of soccer organized and supervised for children by adults. In Edmonton, the sport was controlled by the Edmonton Minor Soccer Association. Some of the major characteristics of Minor Soccer as conducted during the 1981 season were:

1. Soccer teams within the city were divided into 5 zones (North-East; North-West; SouthEast; South-West; Millwoods).
2. There were four divisions in each age category. Division 1 was considered to be the top division; however, there was a fine line between the abilities of the children in each division.
3. Each team usually played two games per week.
4. Teams registered up to 20 players. However, only 16 could be dressed for and play in any one game.
5. In the Mini-Mite category, the season ran from May 1st to June 30th. Playoffs occurred within each zone and division, but there was no city-wide championship. In the mini-mite age category, districts were given the option of playing either mini-soccer or regular soccer.
6. For the other age categories, the season ran from May 1st to June 30th, then from September 1st to mid October (the latter was known as "The Fall Cup"). Playoffs occurred within each division and zone, with all divisions leading to city championships. A Provincial tournament also existed for the City's 1st and 2nd Division winners.

MINOR SPORT - A competitive, institutionalized game demanding the demonstration of physical skill. Participants in minor sport were placed on teams within a structured league organized specifically for children (18 years and under) by adults, wherein they practiced and competed against other teams on a regular basis.

MITE LEVEL - A division of minor soccer in which children who participated were under 10 years of age at the time of registration.

PEEWEE LEVEL - A division of minor soccer in which children who participated were under 12 years of age at the time of registration.

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In order to understand what factors are related to enjoyment of children's sports, it is first necessary to examine what motivates children to participate in particular activities. Thus, this chapter is divided into three major sections. The first section examines the motivational origins that underlie general involvement in various activities and, more specifically, the motivations underlying children's play activities. The second section addresses the nature of organized sport programs for children. The third section deals with the various characteristics associated with organized sport that affect children's enjoyment of these activities.

A. Motivational Origins

Motives have been defined as being the causes or reasons that explain a given behavior (Jung, 1978). Extreme viewpoints see behavior as originating either totally from within the individual, or as being dependent totally on the environment (Pervin, 1975). More conventional theories see behavior as being influenced by factors from within the individual as well as from the environment, incorporating the notion that the behavior is displayed in order to achieve some sort of goal or end (Koch, 1956; Shaver, 1975). Although research has linked human motivations to those of animals (Harlow, 1950; Koch, 1956), a major distinction from the animals which gives credibility for man's ability to be

internally motivated is his "capacity for intellectual activity - his ability to relate a vast number of perceptions to one another, to abstract, to learn and to communicate" (Nash, 1970:305).

The development of cognitive structures in human beings begins with displays of emotional behavior. Although all forms of animals are capable of displaying some form of emotional response, man "elaborates and enriches it and is capable of a wider range and greater depth of emotional feeling than any other creature" (Nash, 1970:306). This type of behavior first begins in infancy; for the first two years of life, displays of emotional behavior are the primary means by which a child expresses his needs. However, as the child grows older, pure emotional behavior is suppressed as he begins to use vocal speech (language, vocabulary, grammar) to communicate. Communication via the use of language represents the emergence of intellectual activity from an innate state to an active functional state. As language is continually utilized, a child's motivations toward activities originate as a result of cognitive processing.

Language embodies the "ultimate structure of thought," but language matures earlier in child development than intellectual capacities do. . . . [However,] when language becomes an instrument of thought, thought becomes verbalized and . . . [as a result] extends the capacities for thinking in an infinite variety of ways. (Nash, 1970:354)

Motivations of Children

One theory in developmental psychology that examines the change of an individual's cognitive processes is Piaget's Theory of Intellectual Development. A major notion that is crucial to this theory is that people of all age levels are constantly seeking to organize and adapt specific behaviors. Piaget used the concept "organization" to refer to the individual's ability to organize his/her physical and psychological processes (conscious and unconscious) into coherent systems. For example, the physical organization of an individual could be demonstrated by the number of unconscious structures a child employs to enable him to run when he plays "tag." For the psychological organization of a child, one example might be a situation wherein a child is able to integrate the two separate structures of observing and holding an object into one action, such that he sees an object and then immediately reaches out to grab it (Ginsburg and Oppen, 1969).

As an individual develops, these organizational processes become more complex. In order to organize behaviors though, an individual must be able to adapt to the environment. Piaget described two mechanisms which enabled adaption to occur: assimilation and accommodation. These two processes are part of the dialectical relationship which enables the progressive development of higher cognitive processes.

Assimilation refers to the use of existing cognitive structures to interpret new situations and/or objects experienced within the environment. For example, an infant, with limited developed structure, might examine an unfamiliar small object by shaking it or biting it, while an adult would classify it through a comparison with other already familiar objects that had become part of the existing cognitive structure. Accommodation refers to the individual's ability to alter his structures in order to utilize or integrate new objects or knowledge. Assimilation and accommodation must interact together if intellectual growth is to occur. In other words, "intellectual activity is the active, organized process of assimilating the new to the old and of accommodating the old with the new" (Nash, 1970:360).

As with many theories dealing with personal development, Piaget's theory emphasizes that as an individual develops intellectually, he must pass through a sequence of stages. In Piaget's theory, each of the three stages is characterized by a specific set of psychological thought processes.

An individual of any age must adapt to the environment and must organize his responses continually, but the instruments by which he accomplishes this - the psychological structures - will change from one age level to another. For example, both the infant and adult will organize and adapt; but the resulting psychological structures are quite different for the two periods. (Ginsburg

and Oppen, 1969:23)

The first period of Piaget's theory represents the sensory-motor stage of intelligence, which is thought to basically extend from birth through the first two years of life. During this time, the child experiments with his innate motor coordinations; through extensive trial and error, he develops some bodily control, as well as eye-hand coordination. However, he cannot yet exhibit thought processes that depend on symbolic language.

The second period, the period of concrete operations, occurs generally between the ages of 2 years and 11 years. This period is divided into three sections. The first section is the symbolic function, which occurs from the ages of two through four. The use of language begins here as the child becomes capable of understanding that words or mental symbols can represent something that may not be physically present. From ages four through seven, the child passes through a stage of intuitive thought, where the child begins to reason, but is not yet able to reverse his thought processes. In other words, "the child can think from proposition A to proposition B but not back from B to A" (Nash, 1970:362). The third section in this period is the stage of concrete thought that ranges from ages seven through eleven. Here, the child becomes capable of displaying logical thought. Moreover, he is now capable of reversal of thought. For example, he is able to understand

that eight balls may become one group of eight balls or two groups of four balls.

The last period in Piaget's theory is the Formal Operational period, which spans an individual's life from age eleven onward. Here, the child is now capable of reasoning by forming hypotheses. In other words, he is no longer satisfied with whether a statement is merely true or not. Rather, questioning occurs as to the various possibilities of occurrence, with the possibility of more than one solution existing for a given problem.

Piaget noted that one of the most effective ways of measuring a child's developing cognitive processes was to observe the child's reactions during play. He noted that:

In play, [the child] is assimilating objects and activities to his own satisfaction. "Just for fun" he builds castles out of sand, or pretends to fly like Superman. Such activity is no longer an effort to learn, it is only a happy display of known activities. (Pulaski, 1980:82)

White (1959) noted that in play, a child not only enjoys his activity, but may engage in such an activity for other reasons. Young children often engage in such activities in order to seek novelty, whereas older children, as a result of gained experience, often attain feelings of mastery and competence through participation in play activities. In both cases, the child is constantly organizing his perceptions and adapting them to the

environment; however, the child is, in addition, participating in the activity because of an internal interest in the activity. When this concept of internal interest toward an activity manifests itself to the point where the activity becomes an end in itself rather than means to an end, the activity can then be said to be intrinsically motivating to the individual.

Intrinsic Motivation

Involvement in any given behavior is said to be intrinsically motivated if the activity is performed for no apparent reward except for the satisfaction of doing the activity itself. An activity is said to be extrinsically motivated if external reasons within the environment are suspected or become evident (Deci, 1971).

According to Deci (1975), intrinsically interesting activities are those that provide the individual with feelings of competence and self-determination. Feelings of competence refer to an individual's perceived ability to deal with his environment (Hunt, 1965; White, 1959), while self-determination results when an individual experiences feelings of satisfaction as a result of a successful interaction between himself and his environment (Bandura, 1977; Deci, 1975; White, 1959).

In order to achieve these feelings of competence and self-determination, Deci (1975) noted that people will engage in behaviors where they will seek out situations that

provide some form of challenge. Then, through the optimum use of their abilities, people will attempt to conquer the challenge that they encountered. In other words, "the need for feeling competent and self-determining motivates two kinds of behavior: behavior which *seeks* optimal challenge and behavior which *conquers challenge*" (Deci, 1975:57). For children, this form of behavior has been seen to be a desired result from engagement in play activities (White, 1959).

The link between competency and intrinsic motivation has been shown to be important for individuals who participate in sports activities. Weinberg and Ragen (1979) found that among young adults the experiences of success and failure both had effects on a person's intrinsic motivation toward a competitive motor activity. Those who achieved success in the activity saw it as being more intrinsically motivating than those individuals who experienced failure.

Similar results have also been observed among children. McCaughan and McKinlay (1981) found that females aged 12 to 14 who had competed in an activity (a *dodge-run* course) were more intrinsically motivated after success than after experiencing failure in the activity. They found that the subjects measured their competency toward the activity by the degree by which success was attained; success was seen to contribute toward a higher level of self-esteem. In addition, the individuals had greater feelings of satisfaction and enjoyment from participating in the

activity. Conversely, failure in the activity generally resulted in a lack of perceived competence and a lowering of self-esteem.

Roberts, Kleiber and Duda (1981) found that participation in organized sport by children aged 9 to 11 years was generally associated with desirable psychological and physical development. Through a questionnaire administered separately to each of 143 children, the authors discovered that children who participated in sport were higher in perceived competence (both cognitive and physical) than non-participants; in addition, sport participants generally had better feelings toward their personal self-worth.

Based on the above findings, the authors also found support for the hypotheses that sport participants (who were higher in perceived competence) "had greater expectations of doing well in the future . . . and would persist longer in the face of failure than non-participants" (Roberts et al, 1981:214). In this regard, sport activities provided an opportunity for children to demonstrate their competence toward mastering an activity. Children who participated in sport were found to generally have a high degree of perceived competence; the reverse was found for non-participants.

Perceived freedom is one quality which has been shown to be important for intrinsic interest in an activity. When an individual engages in an activity, the more freedom the

individual feels he has will often be interpreted as feelings of control over the activity (de Charms, 1968). This, in turn, will be reciprocated by greater feelings of intrinsic motivation for the activity (Iso-Ahola, 1980). However, a loss of perceived freedom will result in a significant drop in internal motivation and often will be replaced by external attributions, as the individual's sense of control for participating in the activity also diminishes (de Charms, 1968; Iso-Ahola, 1980; Scott and Yalch, 1978).

This viewpoint was supported in a study by Thompson and Wankel (1980), who tested the hypothesis that participants in an exercise program who had a choice in their activities would persist in the program and enjoy it more than those participants who were not given a choice. The results from the study confirmed this:

The subjects in the no-choice condition became progressively more discouraged by the perceived lack of choice and subsequently decreased their attendance, while the choice subjects with a perception of continued choice of activities maintained their attendance level significantly better. (Thompson and Wankel, 1980:441)

Driver and Tocher (1970) noted that aspects of intrinsic interest were maximized for individuals in activities that were viewed as recreational in nature. Participation in these activities generally result from personal choice, and are self-rewarding to the individual.

The concept of intrinsically interesting activities has been expanded by Csikszentmihalyi (1975), who saw this type of activity as being *autotelic* in nature.

Autotelic Activities

Inherent within the definition of intrinsic motivation is the view that an activity is enjoyable for its own sake (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975; Harris, 1978). Csikszentmihalyi (1975:21) has used the term *autotelic* to classify those activities which "maximize immediate intrinsic rewards to the participant." In addition, autotelic activities "required formal and extensive energy output on the part of the actor, yet provided few if any conventional rewards" (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975:10).

In an attempt to explain the phenomenon of intrinsic motivation and internal rewards, Csikszentmihalyi (1975) developed his model of the *flow experience*.

According to Csikszentmihalyi, there are six elements that characterize an individual emerged in a flow state experience. The first, and most primary element of flow, is a mergence of action and awareness, where the person is aware of his actions within the activity, but not of the awareness itself. In other words, the individual knows what he must do in order to do the activity; however, he accomplishes the behavior through unconscious action. He does not stop to question his actions.

In order to attain this mergence, up to five additional elements may also be present within the experience. First, the person's abilities must be equal to the situations or challenges of the activity. Second, the individual must be able to focus his attention directly onto the task or activity at hand. Third, a person *in flow* will experience a *loss of ego*, where he is so involved in the activity that all sense of time and space is virtually unnoticed. Fourth, the individual's involvement is so intense *in flow* that he unconsciously exhibits a sense of control over his actions and the environment. Fifth, when *in flow*, a person will be constantly demanding action and feedback; however, a person does not stop to evaluate the feedback, as he is too wrapped up in the experience to stop and reflect on it.

The key to achieving a flow state experience is to achieve a mergence of action and awareness. In order to reach this mergence and get *into flow*, Csikszentmihalyi emphasizes that there must be a balance between the *action capabilities* (or skills) that the individual has as compared to the *action opportunities* (or challenges) of the activity itself. If there is an imbalance between these two factors, four other experiences could result:

When a person believes that his action opportunities are too demanding for his capabilities, the resulting stress is experienced as anxiety; when the ratio of capabilities is higher, but the challenges are still too demanding for his skills, the experience is worry. The state of flow is felt when

opportunities for action are in balance with the actor's skills; the experience is then autotelic. When skills are greater than opportunities for using them, the state of boredom results; this state fades into anxiety when the ratio becomes too large. (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975:49)

A model of the flow state experience is presented in Figure One.

In his study of the flow state experience among adults involved in five different activities, Csikszentmihalyi (1975) found that eight factors that helped to define what was enjoyable about the activity varied in rank order depending on the activity. For example, the most important enjoyment factor that existed in the sport of basketball was the element of competition; however, in the activity of dancing, that same factor was the least important element for measuring enjoyment in the activity.

By definition, autotelic activities will be enjoyable to an individual because of the intrinsic rewards associated with them. However, Anderson and Moore (1960) noted that for children, autotelic activities must have two additional requirements to fully enhance the child's enjoyment of these activities. First, the activity must have aspects within it that will be relevant to him in his continued development. Secondly, the activity must be one that a child may make mistakes in while learning, but concurrently is not an activity whereby these mistakes will endanger him or others around him. In other words, the child must be in a position where he works toward achieving some type of goal, and

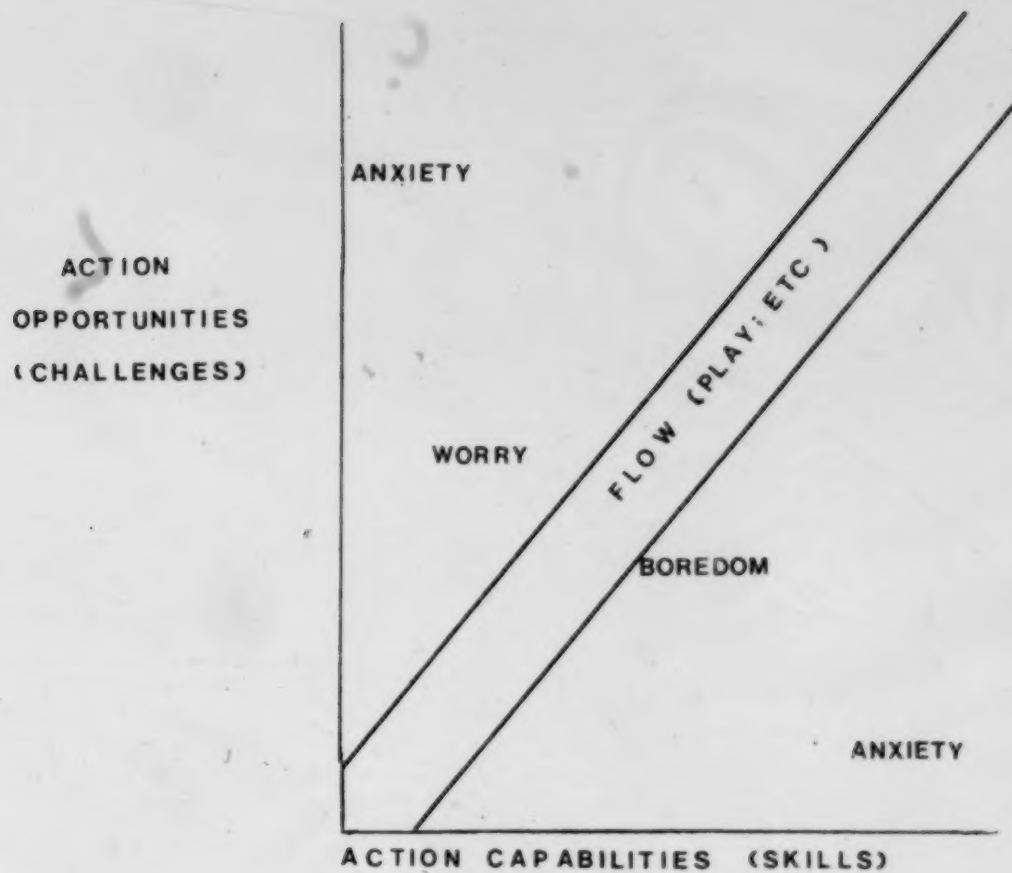


FIGURE 1 MODEL OF THE FLOW STATE EXPERIENCE

SOURCE: CSIKSZENTMIHALYI, 1975:49

attaining the satisfactions resulting from his learning.

Organized sports for children can be demonstrated as being autotelic activities. Kleindienst and Weston (1978) noted that organized sport provides children with an opportunity to enjoy and express themselves, while at the same time teaches them skills and abilities which will aid them in later life, both physically and socially. However, prior to participating in organized sport, children first become aware of the benefits of autotelic activities through more generalized types of behaviors categorized as *play behavior*.

Play Behavior

The concept of play behavior has long been recognized as being an important facet of a child's development, yet it remains a phenomenon that is continually difficult to classify (Ellis, 1973; Harris, 1978). However, the root of play behavior is that the behavior is both pleasurable, "and not motivated by any other motive than seeking the reward inherent immediately in the activity itself" (Ellis, 1973;14). In other words, play behavior is by definition enjoyable and intrinsic in nature.

Play behavior is something that begins in infancy and continues right through the life cycle; what changes over time is the way the play behavior is expressed (Ellis, 1973; Hurlock, 1980; Pulaski, 1980). Prior to age five, children's play is for the most part, spontaneous and unorganized; by

age six or seven though, play begins to become more structured and organized. Play activities often take the form of being games with rules (Iso-Ahola, 1980). Games are playful activities that have outcomes which are determined by physical skill, chance or strategy, employed singularly or in combination (Roberts and Sutton-Smith, 1962). This form of play behavior is the type that persists into adult life, and is further distinguished as being largely social in nature (Iso-Ahola, 1980; Pulaski, 1980).

Lamme and Lamme III (1979) found that in a test on children's play activities, age was a significant factor for participation in specific activities. Using children whose ages ranged from age three to age twelve, this study determined that organized games that had complex rules (such as football, tennis and soccer) were popular among the older children, while loosely organized play activities (such as jump rope, hopscotch and tag) were popular among younger children. These changes in preference may be related to developmental changes in that as cognitive processes develop with age, activities which are simple (such as tag) no longer provide sufficient interest for older children.

Eifermann (1971) conducted a massive observational study with Israeli school children to measure the degree of participation by age in two categories of play: games with rules and *competitive* games with rules. Competitive games with rules were classified as games that carried sanctions when violations of rules occurred, while games with rules

emcompassed cooperative games and individual games that did not carry any sanctions for rule violations. The ages of the children used in the sample ranged from age six (grade one) to age fourteen (grade eight). Eifermann found that there was a steady increase in participation in both games with rules and competitive games with rules as the children who participated in play activities got older (from age six to age thirteen). However, at age fourteen, there was a slight decline in participation. Eifermann felt that the degree of participation was related to the challenge of the activity itself. As the children grew older, there was the increased desire to excel and gain prestige within competitive games, while the challenge of achieving precision and excellence was an incentive in non-competitive games. Eifermann (1971) also noted that the decline in participation at the later ages was partially due to a loss of the objective challenge of the game to the participant, or to socio-cultural pressures placed on the participant.

One of the most popular forms of game activities for children and adults alike is sport. These activities are formally defined as being a multitude of institutionalized games that demand a degree of physical ability on the part of the participants (Loy, 1978). Loy (1978) has tried to differentiate play, games and sport by plotting all three on a continuum. In this manner, he implied that sports are a subset of the larger set of games, while games in turn are a subset of the broader classification of play. In other

words, "all sports are games, but not all games are sport, and all games are play, but not all forms of play are games" (Loy, 1978:73). Thus, sport can have particular characteristics unique to itself, while retaining some of the more inherent properties of games and play behavior.

Kleiber (1979:50) observed that the concept of play shifted somewhat when placed within a sport context:

Play can be turned into sport quite easily - by organizing: taking a group of kids who are playing on their own in a park; for example, and forming a park team that competes regularly as part of a local and regional program.

In addition, several studies have noted that as play behavior becomes increasingly organized, the spontaneity of the activity that previously existed for children tends to disappear (Devereux, 1976; Vaz, 1974; Watson, 1974). However, as the child ages and develops cognitively and physically the spontaneity of simple play activities, which at one point held so much attraction to young children, no longer provides them with any challenge. It is at this point where games with rules become a more interesting and challenging alternative for children (Pulaski, 1980). For many of these children, the most popular classification of games with rules are those which have been previously defined as being sport activities.

B. The Nature of Organized Sport Programs for Children

In North America, organized sport programs have become a very popular pastime for children between the ages of six and thirteen years (McPherson, 1978 b; Rarick, 1973; Seefeldt et al, 1978; Smith and Smoll, 1978). Organized sports are classified as formal programs sponsored by established agencies such as schools, municipal recreation departments, parent groups and national organizations that provide structured instruction and supervision for children from six years of age onward in a multitude of popular sports activities (AAHPER, 1968). Although many children are first exposed to sport activities in school (McPherson, 1978 b), most organized sport activities are out-of-school programs centered in the community (Seefeldt et al, 1978). These latter programs have been conservatively estimated as attracting four million children in the United States, with some estimates going as high as twenty million participants (Coakley, 1978). In Canada, although there have been no statistics compiled that indicate the mass numbers of children participating in all available sports, figures from individual sport agencies indicate that there is widespread interest in sport participation. The Canadian Amateur Hockey Association reported that in the 1977-78 season, 483,170 children between the ages of twelve and eighteen participated in organized hockey (Millson and Christie, 1979). In 1979, figures from the Canadian Soccer Association indicated that 173,000 youth players aged eighteen and under

were registered in soccer programs across Canada. In 1981 in Alberta alone, 27,976 players in this age bracket played for organized soccer teams (Pipe, 1982). These estimates show that there clearly is both interest and demand for these programs both by adults and children. However, these figures do not clearly explain the benefits that these programs provide for the children participating in them. This section will examine, in more detail, how children might benefit as a result of participating in organized sports activities.

The Effect of Early Sport Experiences on Adult Sports Involvement

Some research has indicated that early sport experiences may be an important factor affecting later involvement. For example, several authors (Ciuciu, 1974; Duncan, 1969; Ellis, 1973; Ingham and Loy, 1974; Ponomarev, 1974; Roberts and Sutton-Smith, 1962) have indicated that play, games and sports organized for children are a means whereby the child learns essential skills and behaviors that he will need as an adult.

Current adult involvement in games and sport has been traced back to involvement during childhood (McPherson, 1978 b; Skubic, 1956; Sofranko and Nolan, 1972). Nettleton (1980) noted that adults who participated in sports as children tended to be more active overall as adults than those who did not participate in sports as children.

Also, parents who participated in sport as children can serve as models that may be influential in regard to the child's current participation. Orlick (1972) found that children who were currently participating in sport had at least one parent who had participated in sports as a child, or was currently participating. In general, Overman and Rao (1981) found that the most predominant factors accounting for participation in organized sports by high school students were the parent's roles as socialization agents. In particular, those students whose fathers participated in athletics in the past were more active in organized sports and were participating more in order to receive social approval.

Balazs (1975) found that female athletes that participated in olympic calibre sports as adults had a strong drive to achieve as children:

They internalized this need early in childhood and set a goal for themselves to excel in a sport. The wish to perform on the highest level was intense and remained constant throughout the years, even during adolescence, when the majority of girls would abandon such wishes. (Balazs, 1975:270)

Another aspect of a child's early sport experiences that is critical to his continued participation is the attitude that he has toward the activity.

Children's Attitudes Toward Sport

For any activity, the attitude that a person displays toward it is an important aspect that can influence the individual's continued participation and enjoyment of that activity. In the area of sport, the following studies have indicated that children generally display positive attitudes toward sport.

Smoll and Schutz's (1979) study of children's attitudes toward sport revealed that as children grew older, their attitude toward sport remained positive. The children noted that sport was beneficial in providing a social, aesthetic and ascetic experience, as well as contributing to their health and overall fitness. Although Magill and Ash (1979) failed to discover any outstanding qualities that explained why children had favorable attitudes toward sport, they did note that 83 percent of the sport participants indicated that they played a major portion of their games.

A study done in Michigan on youth sports programs by Seefeldt et al (1978) revealed that participation in various community sponsored sports by boys and girls were thought by the participants to have made a positive contribution toward their personal development.¹

¹To measure the effects of these sport programs, the study was divided into two phases. In the first phase, questionnaires were sent out to 109,000 randomly selected students throughout the state of Michigan who were between the ages of five and seventeen years. Questions that this phase sought to answer included: 1) what types of sport programs were available; and 2) what was the frequency of participation in these programs by boys and girls. The results of this phase indicated that 93,993 individuals

¹ Ten personal and social attributes were previously identified by the authors. Of these ten, five attributes were found to be significantly important to the majority of athletes. In order of importance, these were as follows: eighty-three percent of the athletes felt that sport participation contributed highly to their performance level; 79 percent felt sport participation contributed greatly to their desire to attain a good skill level; and 69 percent and 68 percent of the athletes saw sport as physical participation, to be an influence toward their development of fitness and self-confidence, respectively.

However, the perception of what sport is can vary between children and adults. Staniford (1978:32) noted that there are conflicting viewpoints as to how Canadians view play:

The majority equate play with organized hockey and baseball, and children are plunged into organized team sport leagues at a time when research says they are not ready for externally imposed rules. This then is play for adults but not play for children. And it is no wonder that the children themselves

¹(cont'd) participated in some type of organized sport. Twenty-five sports were identified in Phase One. In Phase Two, 1422 athletes were randomly selected from the 93,993 participants previously identified to determine what effects participation in sport programs had on their personal development. From this initial sample, 1162 athletes returned questionnaires. In order to get representative responses across all twenty-five sports, the sample of athletes varied according to the popularity of the sport, with the more popular sports having more athlete representation. The results reported in this study were combined totals across all sports. No differences between sports were reported.

drop out after a few years, and some never get over their negative feeling about themselves in sport. . . [Instead] children need an opportunity to practice skills and impose their own rules.

Although the program goals of promoting physical fitness and feelings of well-being for participants are commendable, the major criticism of these programs is that organized sports force children to take the games too seriously as a result of beginning sports specialization too early (AAHPER, 1968; Seefeldt et al, 1978; Skubic, 1956).

As an activity, sport plays an important role for both children and adults in the promotion of physical fitness (Bailey, 1973; Ponomarev, 1974). In Canada, although the Participaction program along with other influences has generated a high degree of awareness among individuals concerning the need to be physically active (Jackson, 1975), statistical information on participation has indicated that inactivity is the norm for most Canadians (Statistics Canada, 1978). Many young people in Canada from age six onward are also very unfit; this has been at least partially attributed to the lack of emphasis placed on physical education programs within the school (Bailey, 1973; Sarnier, 1976).

Thus, although sport as a whole is viewed to be important, the overall lack of fitness among Canadians dictates that a more detailed examination must be done within the time period when individuals first become exposed to physical activity, this being childhood. This examination

can be best accomplished by outlining the various facets that presently exist within organized sport, since there are many such programs currently in existence for children.

C. Characteristics Within Organized Sport Programs Affecting Enjoyment

Competition

One of the most frequent areas of discussion pertaining to the conduct of organized sports programs for children centers around the role of competition. Scanlan and Passer (1981) found that both successful outcomes and failure outcomes resulting from competition can have effects on a child's self-esteem and intrinsic motivation toward the sport. They found that male soccer participants aged 11 and 12 years experienced greater self-esteem and anticipated future wins more often when there was a successful outcome than when a failure was encountered. For children, this balance between success and failure in sport is influential in determining how competitive a child may want to be. For example, Scanlan and Passer (1981) found that losing players with low self-esteem expected to be defeated by the same opponents in future contests, while losing players with high self-esteem were optimistic about future contests.

Despite the success/failure connotations associated with the concept of competition, this aspect of sport has some positive attributes. Martens (1978) notes that for children, competition through sport is an important

mechanism that gives children a chance to test their limits and spirit in the face of a challenge, and from this challenge, attain some feelings of satisfaction and achievement. Scanlan (1978) found that children used sport activities as a means of comparing themselves against others, and that comparative and competitive behavior increased with age throughout the elementary school period.

Several variables were identified that closely correspond to the aspects of competition that exist in organized sport. These included cooperation, winning, and effect on physical and psychological well-being of participants. These variables will now be examined.

Competition and Cooperation. There is some evidence that the emphasis placed on competition is a product largely derived from the North American environment. For example, Roberts and Sutton-Smith (1962) found that children from fifty-six African tribes participated in play activities that stressed cooperation rather than competition. Similar activities among Inuit (Eskimo) children were observed by Orlick (1978). Coakley (1978) also noted that in China, competition in sport is de-emphasized in favor of other aspects that include friendship, exercise and physical development.

It has been found that as a result of socialization, there is a shift from cooperative activities toward activities that are more competitive in nature as a child grows older. Typically in North America, if a child is given

a choice between being competitive or being cooperative, the older child is more likely to choose the former, while the younger child will tend to choose the latter (Hurlock, 1980; Kagan and Madsen, 1971; Staniford, 1978).

In addition, studies by Madsen (1967) and Kagan and Madsen (1971) found that children from urban centers got overly competitive in an activity to the point where any cooperative behavior was totally suppressed. Further, this display of competitive behavior was shown to have become a hindrance; when given a choice between cooperative and competitive behavior for a given situation, children were seen to have reacted competitively, even when the best alternative was instead to be cooperative. Madsen (1967) pointed out that this competitive reaction could be related to the child's environment, as children from rural environments were far less competitive than those from urban environments. Parents were also seen to be possible causes for competitive behavior in children, particularly for those children from urban environments.

Aggressive and competitive behavior may in many instances be seen as necessary and indeed desirable by the parents. The parents in turn will tend to reward aggressive and competitive behavior in their children or at least provide a model for such behavior. (Madsen, 1967:1319)

Competition and Winning. Martens (1978) observed that a heavy emphasis on the importance of winning has overshadowed

the other aspects of competition. He notes that many adults feel that when winning becomes the major objective within sport at the expense of other factors such as fun and equal participation by all players (regardless of ability), then sport can become a destructive pastime for many children.

Webb (1969) found that as age increased in children, there was a greater desire to acquire specific skills and achieve success, not only in formal experiences (most notably, the classroom), but also in their play activities. As a result, children's perceptions toward sport activities were seen to shift dramatically from the play orientation to the competitive orientation, as their attitudes became *professionalized*. The sample frame used by Webb consisted of male and female children from grade 3 up to grade 12. Three important factors that demonstrated this shift in perception within sport activities were defined by the author. These factors were: *personal accomplishment*, *playing the game fairly* and *winning*. The children were asked to rank the three factors in order of importance.

In regard to the age groups used in the present study (grades 3 to 6), Webb found that winning became less important as children grew older, while skill development became more important as age increased. *Playing the game fairly* was found to be quite important to children from these age groups.

Through the use of the same instrument, Maloney and Petrie (1972) obtained substantially parallel results to

Webb's (1969) overall finding concerning *professionalized* attitudes. However, because their sample frame was limited to school children from grades 9 to 12, no inference can be made regarding their results to the sample frame used in the present study.

Fait and Billing (1978) stated that an over-emphasis on winning could result in it being viewed as an extrinsic reward that could undermine a child's enjoyment in participating in sport for its own sake. They noticed that children who see winning as the prime reason for participating in an activity may decline to continue if circumstances no longer make winning possible.

Competition and Its Effect On the Child's Well-Being.

Too much emphasis on the importance of competition and winning in organized sport can have a disastrous effect on children's psychological health, as well as affect their enjoyment of the activity. Although Rarick (1973) found that participation in sports by children of elementary and junior high school age contributed significantly to maintaining good health and fitness, he noted that high pressure aspects as a result of intense competitive play was undesirable for the participants' psychological development. An over-emphasis on competition was found to distort the children's sense of values toward the activity, while at the same time it undermined wide participation in sport by children of varying abilities by focusing on the athletically talented few.

Research has shown that an over-emphasis on competition not only causes mental strain, but physical strain as well (Bucher and Cohane, 1969; Scanlan and Passer, 1978). One of the major symptoms of physical strain is a loss of sleep on the part of the participants due to the pressures resulting from game situations (Seefeldt et al, 1978; Skubic, 1956).

Bunker and Rotella (1977) observed that coaches who over-emphasized competition and winning often produced young athletes who were constantly unhappy and dissatisfied with their performance, because pressure was exerted on them in order to raise their aspirations to unrealistic heights.

Gelfand and Hartman (1978) found that participation in competitive sports produced some unattractive aggressive responses in children. They felt that competitiveness in sport should be de-emphasized in favor of mass-participation by all children, and that recognition should be given for participation effort or improvement rather than for winning.

The detrimental effects resulting from an over-emphasis on competition can in some instances, be so severe that they cause a child to drop out of sport.

Drop-Outs From Sport

In many instances, an over-emphasis on competition can lead to a decrease in the number of children participating in sport. Orlick (1972) found that high competitiveness in organized sport resulted in non-participation by those individuals who did not have a lot of athletic talent. These

children either would not be involved at all throughout a game or would be placed in a situation where they would be given a minimal amount of playing time when they were inserted into the game. Orlick observed that "a system that makes *being good* a prerequisite to playing would not appear to foster mass participation" (Orlick, 1972:140). In a follow-up study, Orlick (1974) found that many young people dropped out because they did not get a rewarding experience in doing the activity either as a result of not being fully competent with the skills of the game or by not getting a proper chance to participate.

In hockey, Hansen (1970) noted that as boys grew older, there was a decline in participation because of the high emphasis placed on the ability of the child. In addition, too much involvement in the sport from too early an age caused many boys to become disinterested in the sport, resulting in subsequent dropping-out from the sport.

Barnes (1979) noted that overwhelming pressure on children through a combination of people (coach, parents and friends) and/or aspects of the sport itself resulted in children who dropped out of sport. They were either burned out or had been lacking development in other aspects of life due to the heavy concentration within the sport.

Carroll (1970) discovered that drop-outs in sport were not limited to those participants who were lacking in skills or ability. Reports from athletic drop-outs who had achieved a high degree of performance revealed that the pressures

from outside activities (notably work) caused them to view athletics as being too time-consuming. In addition, the emotional strain connected to the dedication required of an athlete also was a contributing factor leading to a discontinuance in the sport.

Among younger children, Mitsui (1978) also found that ability was not the only factor associated with dropping out of sport. Within a Waterloo soccer league, he found that 33.3 percent of male soccer players between the ages of eight and twelve years, who had been selected for the all-star team at their age level, did not participate in the sport the following year. The major reasons for dropping out centered on the competitive emphasis of the sport. Fifty-six percent of the expressed reasons showed that there were problems within the sports program (such as: Too much travelling; Not fun anymore), while 36 percent alluded to the inadequacies of the coach. Only 8 percent of the reasons for dropping out were related to a conflict of interests.

Pooley (1979) found that drop-outs in soccer resulted from several factors that were directly related to the heavy emphasis placed on competitiveness. According to the author:

The taller and heavier the boy, the more successful he is (exclusive of skill); the smaller the boy, the more intimidated he becomes for the sheer weight and power of some of his opponents inhibit skill development and he resorts, or tries to resort, to kicking and running as his larger opponents do. . . . [In addition], the younger the players, the more likely certain players are to play the whole game

without touching or scarcely touching the ball (this is especially noticable of wingers and full backs). How can soccer be learned under these conditions? (Pooley, 1979:78)

In a follow-up study, Pooley (1980) discovered that in addition to competitiveness, males dropped out of soccer programs because there was little or no feedback from their coach, either in regard to receiving praise or tips on self-improvement. A conflict of interest was also mentioned as a factor, indicating that the quality of the game was not strong enough to warrant continued participation.

Adult Domination In Children's Sport Programs

A central component within organized sports for children is the presence of adults, either to organize the activity or to supervise it. However, too much organization and involvement can be instrumental in reducing the amount of enjoyment children derive from the activity (Devereux, 1976; McPherson, 1978 b).

In Minor Hockey, McPherson and Davidson (1980) found that an enormous amount of influence was exerted by adults on children to the point where hockey became a business to entertain adults rather than a game. Vaz (1974) noted that children involved in sport were so organized in regard to their practice and game schedules that the sport looked more like work than play.

Watson (1977) found that a significant number of parents of Little League Baseball players were present at

games, either at the organizational/managerial level, or as spectators. A high amount of game involvement was discovered through the amount of communication directed toward the players as well as discussion amongst other parents focusing on aspects specific to the game itself. In hockey, Larson, Spreitzer and Snyder (1975) noted that the parents of hockey players were more than spectators; they were, in fact, a special kind of participant. The authors observed that the children's achievements in the sport are viewed by the parents as a reflection of themselves. In other words, the child's actions are extensions of what the parents themselves would like to accomplish. Through a parent questionnaire, the authors discovered that parents felt that the major objective of youth hockey programs focused on winning, followed closely by the teaching of competitive behavior and the development of hockey skills. To the parents, the aspect of having fun was not considered important. What parents consider important for participation in hockey is important when one examines what children enjoy about sport; to this effect, the authors note that "a ten or eleven-year old son is still at an age where his behavior is in large part an extension of his parents" (Larson, Spreitzer and Snyder, 1975:58).

Fry, McClements and Sefton (1981) found that the parent's actions concerning the sport have more impact on their sons than they themselves realized. For example, 76 percent of the boys still playing hockey reported that their

parents yelled at the participants in a game while only 7 percent of the parents reported this behavior.

Presence of Significant Others

There has been some research within children's organized sport programs that indicates that the presence of significant others is an important motivator for children's participation in sport. Watson (1975) found that children felt that the interest of the parents in regard to the sport of baseball was a very important factor in their continued interest in participating in the sport. Orlick (1972) found that parents who participated in sports got their children involved and by showing continued interest, tended to maintain the child's participation in the sport.

Smith, Smoll and Curtis (1978) found that Little League players, whether they participated on winning teams or on losing teams, all tended to look up to their coaches, and generally expressed favorable attitudes toward them.

Although no study was found that specifically examined the importance of friends within children's organized sports, a study by Cacioppo and Lowell (1981) found that both men and women who participated in a team sport with friends enjoyed the activity more than participating with a person who was not a friend. Further, it was found that cooperating in a team effort with a friend was more enjoyable than when the individual had to compete against a friend.

Existence of Rewards

The presence of tangible rewards such as ribbons, medals and trophies has traditionally been part of sport competitions as a way of showing recognition and achievement. However, some investigations have suggested that the existence of such rewards within organized sport aimed at children are unnecessary motivators which seem to add to the overall pressure exerted on the participants (Singer, 1977). Gelfand and Hartman (1978) and Thomas (1978) concurred that sport for children could be improved by the elimination of tangible rewards, as these seemed to separate winners from losers.

Some research has been conducted that deals with the effects of rewards on children's play activities. Studies by Lepper, Greene and Nisbett (1973) and Greene and Lepper (1974) hypothesized that the presence of an external reward for engaging in an activity that was intrinsically interesting would undermine further interest in the activity when no reward was present. In both studies, pre-school children were randomly placed into three groups. Children in the first group were told that upon completion of their task (drawing pictures), they would receive a reward for their efforts. The second group performed the same task and were not told about the reward, but received it unexpectedly upon completion of the task, while the third group neither expected nor received a reward. One to two weeks later, the children were invited back for a day and informed that they

could spend the time playing with a variety of toys (including the task activity). It was found that the children from the expected reward group showed significantly less interest in the task activity than the children from the other two groups. Both studies concluded that these results supported the hypothesis that the introduction of an external reward undermined a previously defined intrinsic activity; in other words, the child perceived the activity as a means to an end (the reward), rather than engaging in the activity for its own appeal.

Contrary results to the above studies were proposed by Boggiano and Ruble (1979). They found that rewards made contingent on displays of successful performance and competency in a given task maintained intrinsic interest in an activity for children. They also noted that information that most effectively sustained interest in an activity for children depended on the developmental level of the child.

It is not until 7-8 years of age that children derive feelings of competence from *comparative* standards of excellence; however, even very young children (e.g., preschoolers) are assumed to make evaluative judgements regarding their level of competence based on *absolute* performance standards. (Boggiano and Ruble, 1979:1463)

In a related study to Lepper, Greene and Nisbett (1973) and Green and Lepper (1974), Orlick and Mosher (1978) used children between the ages of nine and eleven years to test

the effects of external rewards on children's play behaviors. The results of their study supported the hypothesis put forth by Lepper, Greene and Nisbett (1973). Orlick and Mosher found that the presence of external rewards in a sports-related task undermined the child's further intrinsic interest in the activity.

Thomas and Tennant (1978) conducted an experimental study using elementary school age males to see if external rewards caused any changes in children's motivations toward athletic tasks. Using information obtained from previous studies (Greene and Lepper, 1974; Halliwell, 1976; Lepper, Greene and Nisbett, 1973; Shultz, Butkowski, Pearce and Shanfield, 1975), the authors hypothesized that for a given intrinsic activity, two theories known as the *additive principle* and the *discounting principle* could be used to demonstrate that the effects of rewards on children's play behaviors varied depending on the age of the child.

Children will use the discounting principle more with increased age; whereas the use of the additive principle will decrease with age. In essence, this means that young children using the additive rule will see their intrinsically motivated behavior as fun, while viewing the external reward simply as a bonus with no undermining effect. However, older children tend to use the discounting principle in causal analyses, which results in discounting of their own intrinsic interest in the activity and viewing their behavior as motivated by the external causes. (Thomas and Tennant, 1978:130)

A total of one hundred and forty-four children aged 5, 7 and

9 years of age were asked to participate in four athletic tasks (dribbling a basketball, tossing bean bags, walking a balance beam, and throwing balls at targets); with the exception of the control group, each child received a reward (ranging from 8 cents to a maximum of 32 cents) upon completion of the *throwing balls at the target* activity. Two weeks later, the child returned to the testing area where he participated in a session where he was free to participate in any of the original four activities. The results of this experiment supported the additive and discounting hypotheses. For the young children (age 5), the presence of external rewards did not reduce a child's enjoyment of an athletic activity; for them, a reward was seen as a bonus. However, as the age of the children increased, the reward was perceived as a bribe, and subsequently resulted in a decrease in future participation of the activity when no reward was given. Based on their findings, the authors noted that an extrinsic reward could be used to increase intrinsic motivation in the activity (such as acknowledging a child's performance), but that it was possible that further displays of motivational behavior could be directed toward attainment of another extrinsic reward, rather than enjoyment of the activity.

Personal Accomplishment

Within activities, a very important reason for participating in any activity is the attainment of feelings

of accomplishment gained through involvement in the activity. Kazdin (1975) indicated that people will tend to participate in activities that are enjoyable or pleasant (a form of positive reinforcement) and avoid those that are aversive. Similarly, Wankel (1980) suggested that continued involvement in an activity was very dependent on the individual deriving personal satisfaction or enjoyment from the activity.

For children, deriving positive feelings of accomplishment has been seen as being an important factor for their continued participation in sports activities. For many children, sports activities are a means where they can fulfill desires for achievement and thus obtain personal satisfaction (Roberts and Sutton-Smith, 1962; Rushall and Siedentop, 1972).

Cooper (1977) found that major reasons for involvement in football by players aged 9 to 15 revolved around the need for accomplishment through factors such as getting in shape and improvement of skills.

Desired Outcomes Resulting from Participation in Sport

Although participation in a sports activity can be highlighted by one or two factors, it is most often a combination of many factors that determine the extent by which children obtain an enjoyable experience through their involvement in the activity. Wood (1980) found that male participants (aged 11-15) in basketball and swimming viewed

sport as an opportunity to acquire feelings of success, aggression and power. Sapp and Haubenstricker (1978) found that children aged 11 to 18 years who participated in sports programs joined for varying reasons. The most important reason for joining a sports program for both males and females was to *have fun*. The remaining reasons given became more specific; in other words, they served to define what made the sport enjoyable. In order of importance, these reasons were: learning new skills, physical fitness, participation by friends, meeting new friends, parental influence, nothing else to do, and feeling important.

Watson (1975) divided the various reasons children had for participating in baseball into four meaningful dimensions. These dimensions were: Social Reciprocity (being with friends, being on a team); Achievement Mastery (winning, playing well); Extrinsic Rewards (pleasing others, getting trophies); and Intrinsic Rewards (fun, excitement, feeling good, getting fit). He found that the factors which existed within the dimension of Intrinsic Rewards were perceived as being more important than any of the other three dimensions.

Robertson (1981) conducted two extensive surveys over two years among seventh grade children in Australia to find out what children derived from participating in sport. Using information based on previous studies, he examined the satisfactions which attracted and maintained the interest of children in sport, as well as factors within organized sport

that children did not enjoy as a result of participation.

Using the categories derived by Watson (1975), Robertson found that the most popular motivation for sport involvement by children were factors found within the Intrinsic Motivation category. Approximately 70 percent of the males and 66 percent of the females indicated that they participated in sport in order to derive feelings of satisfaction and accomplishment. The next most popular category was the Achievement Mastery category, as 13.9 percent of the males and 13.6 percent of the females felt that aspects such as winning and playing well contributed toward their overall enjoyment. The remaining categories identified to be possible motivators were the areas of Social Reciprocity, followed by the area of Extrinsic Rewards. Only a very small percentage of the males and females felt that these two categories contributed toward their overall enjoyment of sport.

Robertson (1981) also found factors that soured the children's enjoyment of participation in sport. The major reason children disliked sport was that there was too much competitive emphasis within the sports programs themselves. Approximately 38 percent of the males and 41 percent of the females indicated that this area was over-emphasized, and thus was viewed as being very detrimental toward sport enjoyment. The remaining areas which children felt deterred their enjoyment within sport were, in order of importance: danger of injury, too much adult involvement, pressures from

peers, and miscellaneous elements (such as bad weather and improper facilities). Excluding the last area, the three other categories all had factors within them that emphasized competition over enjoyment of sport for its own sake.

A study by Gould et al (1981) on the participatory motives of competitive youth swimmers also found that the intrinsic values inherent in the sport were far more important than the extrinsic values. Specifically:

Fun, staying in shape, a desire to be fit, skill improvement, team spirit, and challenge were the motives rated most important. In contrast, energy release, parents or friends want me to, tension release, to be popular, and travel were the lowest rated motives. (Gould et al, 1981:3)

Age Differences and Desired Outcomes From Sport Involvement

It was noted earlier in this chapter that several authors (Ellis, 1973; Hurlock, 1980; Pulaski, 1980; Lamme and Lamme III, 1979; Eifermann, 1971; Staniford, 1978) had observed that the age of a child was an important variable that determined what type of play (or sport) activity he/she participated in. However, this variable was also important in determining what a child enjoyed the most about a particular activity. Several studies have indicated that children of different ages desire different outcomes as a result of their participation in sport. Vaz (1974) found

that as children who participated in hockey got older, the importance of winning as a measure of personal accomplishment and satisfaction decreased considerably. Instead, the players measured individual success through the mastering of the technical skills, such as passing, skating, and shooting. In separate studies, both Watson (1975) and Gould et al (1981) have indicated that the younger children valued extrinsic rewards as indicators of personal accomplishment to a much greater extent than older athletes. However, both studies also noted that as the children got older, intrinsic values such as *staying in shape*, *excitement* and *having fun* were more important variables that defined personal satisfaction and accomplishment than extrinsic rewards. Similar results were also obtained by Webb (1969) with regard to age groups appropriate to the present study.

Summary

This chapter has noted that there are many facets within organized sport that influence a child's enjoyment of the activity he is involved in. Some factors are currently viewed as being over-emphasized to the point where their presence is more detrimental than beneficial, while other factors are not emphasized enough.

Within organized sport, there must be a better understanding that age differences of children can result in different perceptions as to what makes the sport enjoyable (Gould et al, 1981; Vaz, 1974; Watson, 1975). Orlick (1972)

noted that various sports should be adjusted to better suit the size and age of younger children. Other research (Barnes, 1979; Bunker and Rotella, 1977; Bucher and Cohane, 1969; Scanlan and Passer, 1978; Seefeldt et al, 1978; Skubic, 1956) has pointed out that improper considerations of a child's age and stage of mental development can result in unnecessary physical and emotional stress which often can lead to the child's withdrawal from further sport activities.

Although organized sport has, in the past, been handled almost exclusively by adults, perhaps the lack of greater input from the child participants themselves is an aspect that may be inhibiting the development of sports programs. The purpose of the present study is to determine, from the children's perspective, those aspects of sport that are most enjoyable to them and as a result, should be emphasized more, as well as those aspects that are perceived by children to be detrimental and thus should be de-emphasized.

III. METHODS AND PROCEDURE

A. The Instrument

Since the study was concerned with determining what children enjoy about participation in organized sport, a prepared questionnaire, the Minor Sport Enjoyment Inventory (MSEI), was developed to tap this information.

The original form of the MSEI was developed through open-ended interviews with playground participants (Wankel and Pabich, 1981). The current questionnaire was a revised version of that instrument modified to accommodate changes indicated by results of earlier testing. In the present study, all information was packaged in two formats: one for baseball, the other for soccer. Both formats contained the same order, wording and number of items. The only difference was that the name of the sport was specifically stated when reference to the sport occurred. For maximum clarity, all of the items in the MSEI were stated in the vocabulary of the children.

In its entirety, the questionnaire contained 107 items. The MSEI was divided into five sections in order to adequately cover the factors that contributed or detracted from a child's enjoyment of sport. These sections were: personal feelings about sport involvement; specific enjoyment factors in sport; specific non-enjoyment factors in sport; values in sport; and factors pertaining to encouragement for involvement in sport. The first four

sections will be discussed in turn. The fifth section is not included as it is not relevant to this study. All of the items within these five sections of the MSEI can be found in Appendix A.

Open-Ended Questions

The first section of the questionnaire consisted of ten open-ended questions designed to get personal opinions from the participants concerning the sport they were involved in. In addition, two open-ended questions were inserted at the end of the questionnaire to facilitate responses with regard to future involvement in the sport. Open-ended questions pertaining to enjoyment or lack of enjoyment concerning the minor sport experience were included to cross-validate the structured questions on these aspects.

Factors Enhancing Sport Enjoyment

The purpose of this section was to measure the importance of ten factors which were previously determined to be important to sport enjoyment. The ten factors comprising this section were five items considered intrinsic to the activity and five items considered important, but more extrinsic to the sport. The intrinsic items were: performing the skills of the game, comparing one's skills with others, achieving a sense of accomplishment, the excitement of the game, and improving one's ability at the game. The extrinsic items were: winning, being with friends,

getting tangible rewards, pleasing other people, and being on a team. The ten items were incorporated into a Thurstonian paired comparison inventory which required that a respondent select the preferred enjoyment factor from each of 45 possible pairs. The items were stated in a manner that indicated that children enjoyed both items from which the respondent was asked to pick his preferred choice. This format has been suggested for minimizing social desirability effects (Harter, 1979). In keeping with this concept of equal desirability, all ten factors were arranged in such a manner that each factor occurred first or second approximately equally in the item pairs on the questionnaire.

Factors Detracting From Sport Enjoyment

In this section, an attempt was made to measure the importance of factors which might detract from an individual's enjoyment of sport. Twenty-six factors were identified and arranged on a five point Likert Scale to measure the subject's perceived feeling concerning that factor. For each of the factors, the subjects could choose one of the following responses: ²

²The exception in this format occurred with the Mini-Mite Soccer sample, where a three point scale (agree, undecided, disagree) was used to maximize clarity and understanding for these very young children.

- I strongly agree with the statement.
- I agree with the statement.
- I am undecided about the statement.
- I disagree with the statement.
- I strongly disagree with the statement.

The twenty-six factors used in this portion of the study are summarized in Table One.

Factors Perceived as Important to Sport Involvement

In this section, a scale modified after research conducted by Webb (1969) was used to measure the perceived importance of factors related to sport involvement. Originally, this scale contained three items that related to the perceived importance of different emphases in playing a game. These were *winning*, *playing fair* and *playing well*. Individuals were asked to rank these items in order of importance. However, questions about the legitimacy of treating the ordinal level of measurement of the original scale as if it were an interval scale led to the decision to alter the scale format to a Thurstonian paired comparison inventory which would provide an interval level of measurement. In order to do this, a fourth item had to be added to the inventory. Since the present study was concerned with sport enjoyment, the fourth item added was

Table 1
Factors That May Reduce Enjoyment of Sport

-
-
- a) Teammates Take The Game Too Seriously
 - b) People Want To Win Too Much
 - c) Dislike Losing A Game
 - d) Coach Criticizes Too Much
 - e) Don't Like Going To Practices
 - f) Don't Like Getting Hurt
 - g) Sport Is Too Time Consuming
 - h) Don't Like Being Watched When Playing The Game
 - i) Always Waiting Around During A Game
 - j) Not Part Of The Action Very Often
 - k) Playing Time And Positions Are Not Equal Among Team Members
 - l) Dislike Being Compared Against Other Players
 - m) Always Being Told What To Do
 - n) People Cheating
 - o) No Choice Of Position
 - p) Teammates Don't Take The Game Seriously
 - q) Some Players Are Too Good
 - r) Some Players Are Not Good Enough
 - s) Coach Is Not Knowledgeable About The Sport
 - t) Crowd Boos Team
 - u) Sport Takes Too Much Energy - Get Too Tired
 - v) Teammates Get Mad When Athlete Does Not Play Well
 - w) Parents Want Athlete To Be Better Than What He Is
 - x) Referees Make Bad Calls During A Game
 - y) Unreasonable Rules
 - z) Dislike Playing In Bad Weather
-

having fun. Respondents were required to select the preferred item from each of six possible pairs. The arrangement of these items in the questionnaire was conducted in exactly the same manner previously outlined in the "Enjoyment Factors" section in this chapter.

Pilot Study of the Instrument

Prior to the present study, the MSEI was utilized once. In this instance, an earlier version of the MSEI was used in a pilot study conducted during September, 1980. During this period, 45 participants from 6 soccer teams in the south-west zone of the city completed all sections of the questionnaire. This pilot study was useful in identifying potential problems in administering the questionnaire and established that the instrument could be effectively utilized with the desired age group.

Test-Retest Reliability of the MSEI

A test-retest procedure was employed using twenty-three students from Grandview Heights Elementary School, located in the south-west section of the city. There were two requirements for participating in the test-retest procedure. First, the students who were involved had to be between the ages of 7 and 12 (the range required for the actual sample). Secondly, all of the students had to be involved in at least one sport outside of school time within the past year.

For the test-retest, the students were asked to answer two parts of the MSEI on two separate occasions with respect to their favorite sport. The span of time between the two sessions was a period of one week.

The two parts of the MSEI used in each session included the first nineteen items from the Thurstonian Paired Comparisons on enjoyment of the sport, as well as all twenty-six Likert Scale "dislike" statements.

The reliability of the Thurstonian Paired Comparison items was +0.73, while the correlation coefficient derived for the Likert Scale items was +0.77. Although these figures were somewhat lower than desired, it was felt that by more carefully standardizing the test instructions and test conditions (two different researchers administered these tests), reliable data would be ensured.

Validity of the Instrument

Horrocks (1964:61) has noted that "face validity is an indication of whether a test agrees with a subject's ideas of what the content of the test ought to be." Face validity was built into the MSEI by the procedures utilized in its development. Wankel and Pabich (1981) conducted interviews with playground participants to get their views on what they enjoyed and did not enjoy about organized sport and then utilized these responses as the basis for items included in the MSEI.

The procedures utilized in developing the paired comparison scales within the MSEI ensured that the scales had a degree of face validity. To this effect, Thurstone (1967) noted that the statements that are arranged in pairs should be arranged such that all items have an equal chance of being selected by the respondents. In the present study, the items used in the Thurstonian paired comparison sections were all stated in such a way as to indicate that they were important to some boys. Between two items, the child was able to decide which item was most relevant to him. In arguing for this type of question format, Harter (1979) stated:

The effectiveness of this question format lies in the implication that half the kids in the world (or in one's reference group) view themselves in one way, whereas the other half view themselves in the [other] manner. That is, this type of question legitimizes either choice. (Harter, 1979:2)

In the area of sport psychology, Fisher (1980) has noted that the use of the Thurstonian paired comparison method is an effective method of ordering different factors that are all important within a particular dimension of sport:

Thurstonian scaling assists in the solution of that problem because the ranking process is simplified; only two items are presented at a time. This is particularly appropriate for less sophisticated subjects or young children. It is much easier to answer the question, "Which activity do you prefer?" when the activities are presented in pairs rather than in a composite list. (Fisher, 1980:159)

The Likert method is a simplified version of the Thurstone technique of paired comparisons (Jahoda, Deutsch and Cook, 1951). The Likert attitude scale technique has demonstrated face validity through its simplicity (Edwards and Kenney, 1967). For a given item, the Likert scale is useful in that "person's do differ quantitatively in their attitudes, some being more toward one extreme, some more toward the other" (Likert, 1967:91). In other words, attitudes toward a given item will vary to the extent that it becomes useful to measure people's reactions on an established continuum. For example, in measuring attitude toward physical activity, Kenyon (1968) found the Likert scale method was effective for assessing and ordering various reasons for participation in physical activity by men and women on five out of six scales.

The validity of an instrument may be negatively effected by the language and presentation of the items that are to be measured (Jahoda, Deutsch and Cook, 1951). Since the present study was measuring children's opinions about sport involvement, all wording in the questionnaire was geared toward a child's level of understanding. Through the pilot study, the inventory was pre-tested in order to modify

and improve clarity and understanding of the items in the questionnaire.

A check on the concurrent validity of the structured scales was provided for in this research by including open-ended questions at the beginning of the questionnaire. With open-ended questions, the respondent is allowed to give spontaneous answers where he can express his feelings in his own manner, rather than confining him to pre-selected choices (Komkauser, 1951). Through a content analysis of these responses, concurrent validity is established when the answers given correspond to items that have been previously determined within the questionnaire (Horrocks, 1964).

B. Subjects

The sample was drawn from baseball and soccer sport teams that existed in the south-east sector of the City of Edmonton, in May, 1981. The area was selected as being representative of others in the city.

The two sports used in the study were selected for two primary reasons. First, both sports were available to children in the south-east sector and both were popular participation sports for boys. Secondly, both sports operated during the same months of the year. Due to practice and game commitments, this meant that the child could only participate in one of the sports, thus preventing the problem of dual sport participation within the sample (Kroll, 1970).

An attempt was made to draw a representative sample from each sport. However, there was a variation in total numbers and method of sample selection, due to the independent organizations responsible for making the participants available for the study. For this reason, a short description of the selection of the sample will be done separately for each sport.

Selection of the Sample for Soccer

The Edmonton Minor Soccer Association (E.M.S.A.) is an autonomous voluntary body responsible for the organization and coordination of the community league soccer program in the city of Edmonton. The program is spread out over four zones. A varying number of communities/districts within each zone sponsor soccer teams. The communities differ in the number of teams that they have, both within a given age category and across the full spectrum of age divisions.

There are 6 age categories within the E.M.S.A., these being Mini-Mite, Mite, Pee-Wee, Bantam, Midget, and Juvenile. For the purposes of this study, only participants from Mini-Mite, Mite and Pee-Wee teams in the south-east zone were used. These latter categories covered elementary school aged children (ages 5-12). For many of these children, (particularly the Mini-Mites) playing on a soccer team represented their initial involvement in an organized sport.

Eight teams from each of the three age categories were initially drawn at random from the total population of soccer teams in the south-east zone. The abilities and standings of each team were unknown at the time the sample was drawn. Coaches from each team in order of selection were contacted by telephone until five teams from each of the categories were secured.

There were two major difficulties in securing the final sample for the study. The first difficulty occurred when it was discovered that many of the existing soccer teams were made up of male and female participants. The presence of the female participants meant that there was a reduction in the maximum number of male participants that could be obtained.

The second difficulty surfaced during the actual administration of the instrument. During the testing period, three teams (one from each category) were unable to take part in the study. Therefore, the final sample consisted of four soccer teams in each age category. A maximum of 144 participants were eligible for the study. Of these, 113 boys (78.5%) took part in the study. The complete age group breakdown for the soccer sample is shown in Table 2 (page 69).

Selection of the Sample for Baseball

The Edmonton Little League Baseball Association, the predominant youth baseball organization in the city, is spread across nine zones. The structure of the league

differs from soccer in that each zone has its own league president responsible for the organization of play in that area. There are four age categories in Little League Baseball: T-Ball (age 6); Minors (ages 7-8); Majors (ages 9-12); and Bantams (ages 13-14). In order to compare this sport with the sport of soccer, it was felt that teams should be represented from the T-Ball, Minors and Majors Categories.

The only zones situated in the south-east section of the city that coincided with the soccer sample were the Ottewell and Hardisty areas of the City of Edmonton, Alberta. Upon investigation, it was found that the total population of baseball teams from both areas were 6 teams in the Minors section and 10 teams in the Majors section. It was decided to use the entire population of baseball teams in these two zones as the baseball sample.

As with the soccer sample, coaches from each of the teams were contacted by telephone concerning the nature of the study. After this initial contact, with the exception of one Minor league coach, all of the coaches agreed to take part in the study.

The one major difficulty with securing the final sample for the study occurred during the actual administration of the questionnaire. Many of the teams were uncooperative in regard to actually assisting in the data collection. In the final sample, nine teams from the Majors section participated in the study. None of the teams from the Minors

section were represented. Approximately 50% of the participants who were eligible took part in the study.³ The complete age group breakdown for the sport of baseball can be found in Table 3 (page 69).

C. Collection of the Data

After the initial sample was selected, contact was established by telephone with each individual coach in order to explain the study and to gain the coach's permission for his team to be involved. The arrangement for completing the questionnaire was done for each team at its convenience, during a time that the coach felt would draw the team members. All coaches were thanked for their cooperation and told that a summary of the major findings would be mailed to them upon completion of the study.

For both sports, each team was given one separate testing session of one hour in duration. All testing sessions were held during a practice time or immediately following a scheduled game. All testing was completed in an unoccupied classroom in a school adjacent to the team's playing field. Each one of the members from each team completed a separate questionnaire.

Due to the tight schedules of the baseball and soccer seasons, as well as overlaps in testing sessions as a result of accommodating each team's time preference, it was

³The exact number of participants in the Little League Baseball zones was not recorded by the League Presidents.

Table 2
Soccer Sample by Age

AGE	NUMBER (N=113)	PERCENT OF SAMPLE
5	7	6.2
6	6	5.3
7	13	11.5
8	16	14.2
9	21	18.6
10	21	18.6
11	23	20.4
12	6	5.3
	113	100.0 %

Table 3
Baseball Sample by Age

AGE	NUMBER (N=54)	PERCENT OF SAMPLE
9	5	9.3
10	13	24.1
11	18	33.3
12	17	31.5
13	1	1.9
	54	100.0 %

necessary to obtain five additional research assistants to aid in gathering the data. All assistants received training prior to the data gathering and were given standardized instructions.

The data used in the study were collected during the month of May, 1981. This was approximately the midway point of the soccer and baseball schedules. At the beginning of each testing session, the children were informed that their team had been one of those chosen to have its players express their views as to what they liked or did not like about the sport they were involved in. They were also told that their contribution would result in further knowledge about what boys liked or disliked about the sport which might assist in suggesting changes that would make the sport more enjoyable for all those involved. To put the children at ease, they were then informed that there were no right or wrong answers in the questionnaire, and that all information obtained was strictly confidential.

For all of the testing sessions, the questionnaire administrator read each item in the questionnaire aloud to the participants, giving some time between each item given to allow them to write down their responses. This was done for three purposes. First, this method kept all the subjects working at the same rate and in an orderly manner. Second, this allowed the researcher to explain specific instructions for sections, as well as interpret the meaning of particular items to the group as a whole, rather than becoming

repetitive. Third, this method prevented the children from communicating with one another, thus allowing each child the chance to decide on each item without influence from his peers. All sections of the questionnaire were completed. Upon completion of the questionnaire, the children were thanked for their cooperation and allowed to leave.

D. Analyses of the Data

Upon completion of the testing, all data obtained from the questionnaire were manually coded on to data sheets using a specially prepared codebook. With the exception of the information from the open-ended questions, all data were then key punched by Data Entry Services at the University of Alberta. The information that was applicable to the open-ended questions underwent a manual content analysis procedure.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics (frequency counts, percentages, means and standard deviations) were obtained for the demographic variables and for the Likert Dislike variables using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) program FREQUENCIES.

Thurstonian Paired Comparison Analysis

The scales consisting of the ten *sport enjoyment* items and the four *important values of sport* items were analyzed

using the Division of Educational Research Services (DERS) program SCAL01.⁴ This program produced proportion matrices, z value matrices and scale values (standardized scores) for each group of factors. The scale values were then ranked in ascending order of importance.

This program was used for the soccer sample and the baseball sample to compare the rankings of the Thurstonian items between sport groups. Although all participants from the baseball sample were used, the soccer sample was limited to 71 participants (those who were age 9 or older). This was done so that the age groupings for the two sport samples would be similar. Within the soccer sample, additional analyses were performed to compare the rankings with respect to age groups. For these runs, the entire soccer sample (113 participants) was utilized. Coefficients of agreement for each of the rankings were calculated using Kendall's U statistic and chi-square. This was done to determine if there was significant agreement among the respondents in the rankings of the Thurstonian items (Edwards, 1957).

Likert Scale Analyses

The responses to the twenty-six items pertaining to factors disliked about the sport experience were analyzed by calculating the frequency of various responses, and by examining the differences between means for statistical

⁴The DERS statistical programs are designed and located within the Faculty of Education at the University of Alberta.

significance (i.e. t-test and F-test).⁵

A test of means was performed on each of the twenty-six Likert dislike variables to determine whether there were any differences between the children involved in soccer and those children involved in baseball. The level of significance necessary for rejection of the null hypothesis was $p < .05$.

Values of t were calculated for each variable using the SPSS program T-TEST. Pairwise deletion⁶ of missing data was used with this program. In addition to these calculated t -values, for each of the twenty-six variables the SPSS program T-TEST also calculated the number of cases for each sport, as well as means, standard deviations and standard errors.

A one-way analysis of variance was performed on each of the twenty-six Likert dislike variables to determine if there were any differences across the three age groups of children who participated in soccer. The SPSS program ONEWAY was used with SCHEFFE contrasts to test all possible pairs of group means. The level of significance chosen for rejection of the null hypothesis was $p < .05$. Pairwise

⁵A factor analysis employing a hierarchical iteration using varimax rotation was performed on the scores for the twenty-six items in an attempt to reduce the number of separate items; however, the best factor solution reached did not account for a significant part of the overall variance. Further to this, four of the six derived factors were not interpretable. Hence, no further reference will be made to the factor analysis.

⁶In pairwise deletion, a case is omitted from the statistical calculations if the value for one of the pair of variables being analyzed contains a missing value.

deletion was used with this statistical program.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the results and interpretation of the data will be presented in four sections. The first section presents a summary and discussion of the open-ended responses. The second section focuses on the findings and interpretation of the factors enhancing sport enjoyment. The third section deals with the results and discussion of the essential values important to sport, while the fourth section presents the results and interpretation of the factors detracting from sport enjoyment.

A. Open Ended Questions

This section of the chapter presents information on the soccer and baseball participants' responses to open-ended questions pertaining to the following topics:

1. What was enjoyed about the sport;
2. What was disliked about the sport;
3. What the participants would like to change about their sport;
4. Why participants would not continue with their sport the following season;
5. Why participants would not continue with their sport in

future seasons.

Enjoyable and Non-Enjoyable Aspects of Sport

Table 4 presents aspects that soccer players felt contributed the most toward their enjoyment when participating in the sport. In total, fourteen categories with a range of thirty-seven responses to one response were identified as being enjoyable aspects of soccer. The most popular of these categories was *scoring*, as indicated by thirty-seven participants (32.7% of the sample). Although these results indicated that *scoring* was an important aspect for the participants' enjoyment of the sport, there were two substantial reasons for not including it in the enjoyment inventory. First, it was apparent that the specific event of *scoring* was not independent of several of the items included in the inventory (eg. *doing the skills of the game*, *comparing skills against others*, *achieving a sense of personal accomplishment*, *pleasing others*). Second, all participants do not score; hence, the inclusion of this item would not be appropriate for all soccer participants.

The next three categories, in order of popularity, were *having fun* (18 responses, or 15.9% of the sample), *doing the skills of the game* (14 responses, or 12.3% of the sample), and *getting exercise* (10 responses or 8.8% of the sample). The only other categories that were mentioned by more than one respondent were: *challenge/excitement* (7 responses); *playing favorite position* (6 responses); *being with friends*

Table 4
Factors That Athletes Enjoyed Most About
Playing Soccer

FACTOR	NUMBER (N=113)	PERCENT OF SAMPLE
SCORING	37	32.7
HAVING FUN	18	15.9
DOING SKILLS	14	12.3
EXERCISE	10	8.8
CHALLENGE/EXCITEMENT	7	6.1
FAVORITE POSITION	6	5.3
FRIENDS	4	3.5
PLAYING WELL	3	2.7
PARTICIPATING	3	2.7
WINNING	3	2.7
NO RESPONSE	3	2.7
BEING ON A TEAM	2	1.8
LEARNING THE GAME	1	0.9
COMPETING	1	0.9
REWARDS	1	0.9
	113	100.0 %

(4 responses); *playing well* (3 responses); *participating* (3 responses); *winning the game* (3 responses); and *being on a team* (2 responses).

The responses to this question lend support to the ten factor Thurstonian paired comparison inventory, as seven of those factors surfaced within the fourteen categories. In addition, two further categories identified by the participants (*having fun* and *playing well*) were already incorporated in the four factor Thurstonian paired comparison inventory that dealt with what the participants thought was most important in playing soccer.

Table 5 presents the factors that participants from the sport of baseball reported enjoying about their sport. The most frequently reported item was *having fun*, which generated twenty responses (37% of the sample). The *challenge or excitement of the game*, and *doing the skills of the game* were the next most frequent responses, as each was reported nine times (16.6% of the sample). These categories, as well as the categories *playing well* (3 responses), *being on a team* (2 responses) and *being with friends* (1 response) were already incorporated within the two Thurstonian paired comparison inventories defined in the questionnaire. Four additional categories not directly included in the inventory, which were identified by the baseball participants as contributing to their enjoyment were: *favorite position* (5 responses), *scoring* (1 response), *participating* (2 responses), and *learning the game* (1

Table 5
Factors That Athletes Enjoyed Most About
Playing Baseball

FACTOR	NUMBER (N=54)	PERCENT OF SAMPLE
HAVING FUN	20	37.0
CHALLENGE/EXCITEMENT	9	16.6
DOING SKILLS	9	16.6
FAVORITE POSITION	5	9.2
PLAYING WELL	3	5.5
PARTICIPATING	2	3.7
BEING ON A TEAM	2	3.7
SCORING	1	1.9
FRIENDS	1	1.9
LEARNING THE GAME	1	1.9
NO RESPONSE	1	1.9
	54	100.1 %

response). However, these items could be seen as aspects within the broader categories already incorporated within the established scales (i.e. *doing the skills of the game, personal accomplishment, excitement of the game*).

The next area within the open ended section of the questionnaire asked the participants what they disliked about their sport. Tables 6 and 7 report these responses for the sports of soccer and baseball, respectively. For both sports, the majority of the athletes indicated that there was nothing that they could think of that they disliked about their sport. This was the case for sixty-seven athletes from the soccer sample (59.3%), and for twenty-seven of the baseball participants (50% of the sample).

The remaining participants from the soccer sample identified fourteen variables that detracted from enjoyment of the sport. Of these, the most frequently reported item was *getting hurt*, which generated thirteen responses (11.5% of the sample). *Losing the game* was the next most frequent response; this was reported by seven participants (6.1% of the sample). The only other items that had more than one response were: *no choice of position* (5 responses); *certain rules* (5 responses); *penalties* (3 responses); *bad calls/officials* (2 responses); *not participating* (2 responses); *sport is too time consuming* (2 responses); and *get too tired* (2 responses).

Table 6

Factors That Athletes Disliked Most About
Playing Soccer

FACTOR	NUMBER (N=113)	PERCENT OF SAMPLE
NOTHING	67	59.3
GETTING HURT	13	11.5
LOSING	7	6.1
NO CHOICE OF POSITION	5	4.4
CERTAIN RULES	5	4.4
PENALTIES	3	2.7
BAD CALLS/OFFICIALS	2	1.8
NOT PARTICIPATING	2	1.8
SPORT TIME CONSUMING	2	1.8
GET TOO TIRED	2	1.8
UNNECESSARY PRESSURE	1	0.9
CAN'T DO SKILLS	1	0.9
GAME RITUALS	1	0.9
TOO EASY	1	0.9
BAD WEATHER	1	0.9
	113	100.1 %

Table 7

Factors That Athletes Disliked Most About
Playing Baseball

FACTOR	NUMBER (N=54)	PERCENT OF SAMPLE
NOTHING	27	50.0
BAD CALLS/OFFICIALS	7	12.9
UNNECESSARY PRESSURE	5	9.2
GETTING HURT	3	5.5
PLAYERS NOT SERIOUS	3	5.5
CAN'T DO SKILLS	2	3.7
NOT PARTICIPATING	2	3.7
NO CHOICE OF POSITION	1	1.9
LOSING	1	1.9
SPORT TIME CONSUMING	1	1.9
GAME RITUALS	1	1.9
TOO EASY	1	1.9
	54	100.0 %

Players from the baseball sample produced eleven non-enjoyment variables, eight of which were covered within the Likert scale. Of these, the most frequently reported item was *bad calls/officials*, as indicated by seven participants (12.2% of the sample). The next most frequent response was the item *unnecessary pressure*, which was reported by five participants (9.2% of the sample). The remaining items that generated more than one response were: *team is not serious enough* (3 responses); *can't do skills* (2 responses); and *not participating* (2 responses).

For both sport samples, all but three of the items cited by the participants as detracting from sport enjoyment were already incorporated within the Likert scale section of the questionnaire. For both sports, the three items not covered in the Likert scale were: *can't do skills*, *game rituals*, and *too easy*. However, these items were not frequently reported by participants from either sport.

Over both sports then, the results from these two open-ended questions provide concurrent validity for the make-up of the structured instrument for assessing sport enjoyment. The open-ended questions were given to the participants before they had read the remainder of the questionnaire; thus, these responses were independent of the structured questions. Since most of the participants' responses matched items that were already covered by the questionnaire, the results of these open-ended questions were an indication that the instrument was measuring what it

purported to measure.

Table 8 presents the ideas that the baseball and soccer players had concerning changes for the sports in order to make them more enjoyable for all participants. The majority of the participants from both sports (seventy-five responses comprising 66.4% from soccer and thirty-three responses comprising 61.1% from baseball) indicated that there was nothing that they wanted to alter within their sport.

From these results, it can be concluded that the majority of the sport participants were quite satisfied with the current sport program. However, a sufficient response from both sport samples also indicated that changes could be made with regard to aspects within the sports themselves. Of those respondents who felt that changes should be made, thirty-three respondents from soccer (29.2% of the sample) and eighteen respondents from baseball (33.3% of the sample) indicated that these should be directed toward aspects within the sports themselves. Suggestions that were given to this effect included: the alteration of certain rules (such as allowing the use of hands in soccer and allowing lead-offs from bases in baseball); changing the present scoring system; the alteration of certain penalties; and having adult referees. Five participants from soccer and one participant from baseball also suggested that the sport could be more enjoyable if external pressure on the children was lessened or if the games were made safer for children to play.

Table 8

Factors That Participants Would
Like to Change About Sport

FACTOR	SOCCER		BASEBALL	
	NUMBER (N=113)	PERCENT OF SAMPLE	NUMBER (N=54)	PERCENT OF SAMPLE
NO CHANGES	75	66.4	33	61.1
GAME ASPECTS alter rules, scoring system, penalties, have adult refs., lead-offs (baseball), use of hands (soccer).	33	29.2	18	33.3
PROGRAM EMPHASIS remove pressure, make the game safer.	5	4.4	1	1.9
MISCELLANEOUS indoor play, alter uniforms	0	0.0	2	3.7
	113	100.0 %	54	100.0 %

Table 9 presents the reasons that sport participants gave for not continuing in their sport the following season. Only nine soccer players (8.9% of the sample) and five baseball players (9.3% of the sample) indicated that they would not participate in their sport again the following season.

Of the nine soccer players, the most frequent response for not continuing was the desire to participate in another sport (4 responses). Three participants did not indicate why they were not continuing, while two participants felt that the sport was creating too much physical stress.

Of the five baseball players, two responses were given for the reason having no time, while two participants did not give reasons as to why they were not continuing. One participant indicated that the sport created too much physical stress.

For the participants who indicated that they would be playing their sport again the following season, Table 10 summarizes the reasons as to why they might stop participating in their sport at some future date. Within the soccer sample, thirty respondents (26.6% of the sample) did not answer the question, while twenty-four participants (21.2% of the sample) had no idea. For those participants who had reasons, the most frequent of these responses was to play another sport, as indicated by fourteen athletes (12.3% of the sample), while twelve soccer players (10.6% of the sample) indicated that they would stop participating in the

Table 9

Reasons Given by Athletes for Not Playing the Sport
Next Season

REASON GIVEN	SOCCER		BASEBALL	
	NUMBER (N=113)	PERCENT OF SAMPLE	NUMBER (N=54)	PERCENT OF SAMPLE
NOT APPLICABLE ¹	103	91.1	49	90.7
DO ANOTHER SPORT	4	3.5	0	0.0
NO RESPONSE	3	2.7	2	3.7
TOO MUCH PHYSICAL STRESS	2	1.8	1	1.9
NO TIME	0	0.0	2	3.7
	113	100.0 %	54	100.0 %

¹These individuals indicated that they would be participating in the sport the following season (See Table 10).

Table 10

Reasons Given by Athletes for Not Playing the Sport
Sometime in the Future

REASON GIVEN	SOCCER		BASEBALL	
	NUMBER (N=113)	PERCENT OF SAMPLE	NUMBER (N=54)	PERCENT OF SAMPLE
NO RESPONSE	30	26.6	6	11.1
NOTHING?DON'T KNOW	24	21.2	6	11.1
OTHER SPORTS	14	12.3	8	14.8
GETS TOO SERIOUS	12	10.6	7	13.0
NOT APPLICABLE ¹	10	8.9	5	9.3
GET HURT/SICK	9	8.0	5	9.3
OTHER ACTIVITIES	6	5.3	12	22.2
NOT ENOUGH TIME	4	3.5	3	5.5
BECOME DISINTERESTED	4	3.5	0	0.0
NOT GOOD ENOUGH	0	0.0	2	3.7
	113	100.0 %	54	100.0 %

¹These individuals indicated that they would not be participating in the sport the following season. The responses for these individuals are recorded in Table 9.

sport if it got too serious. Other reasons given by the soccer participants included: getting hurt/sick (9 responses); other activities (6 responses), not enough time (4 responses) and becoming disinterested (4 responses).

For baseball participants, the most frequent response for not playing the sport in the future was that other activities would take precedence over the sport, as indicated by twelve of the respondents (22.2% of the sample). Eight of the players (14.8% of the sample) mentioned the possibility of other sports replacing baseball, while seven participants (13% of the sample) felt that they would stop participating in baseball if the game got too serious. Other reasons given by the baseball participants included: miscellaneous or no answer (6 responses); no idea (6 responses); getting hurt/sick (5 responses); not enough time (3 responses) and not good enough (2 responses).

As noted earlier in the review of literature, the possibility of the sport becoming too serious was a major criticism of organized sport programs by many authors (AAPHER, 1968; Seefeldt et al, 1978; Skubic, 1956). In particular, Skubic (1956) noted that in baseball, the early emphasis on specialization of one sport and the long sport season was educationally unsound. The findings from the present study seem to support this stance, as participants from both sports felt that viable reasons for not participating in the sport (either now or in the future)

resulted from the sport becoming too serious and thus denying them the opportunity of participating in another sport.

The results from these questions concerning future involvement indicated that participants from soccer and baseball were generally positive toward their sport. Participants who planned to terminate their participation (either now or in the future) were doing so because of the attractiveness of another activity or sport; being dissatisfied with the present sport was not a primary reason for quitting.

B. Factors Enhancing Sport Enjoyment

This section presents the findings and discussion concerning the ten sport enjoyment factors that were incorporated within a Thurstonian paired comparison inventory. Table 11 presents the degree of importance that soccer and baseball participants placed on each of the ten factors. The ordering of these factors was accomplished through the use of z scores⁷ that were adjusted by the removal of all negative scale values.⁸

⁷For each distribution, the z score was determined by converting the means of each distribution to zero, while the standard deviations were set at units of one above and below the mean. The use of the z score allows the rank orders of the ten enjoyment factors to be compared between sport and age distributions, because the means and standard deviations are equal.

⁸According to Edwards (1957), in a Thurstonian paired comparison inventory, negative scale values are judged to be less favorable to respondents while positive scale values are seen to be more favorable to respondents. In order to

For each sport, and for the combined sample, Kendall's U statistic was used to measure the coefficient of agreement; this determined whether there was agreement among the respondents in the rank order of the factors. "If U takes on any positive value whatsoever, then there is a certain amount of agreement among the judges" (Edwards, 1957:78). Through the use of the Chi-Square distribution, it was found that there was significant agreement among the participants as to the rank order of the ten enjoyment factors at the .001 level for each individual sport, as well as for the combined sample from both sports.

The scale values indicated that the ten enjoyment factors separated into two categories: factors that were intrinsic in nature, and factors that were extrinsic in nature. The five factors previously noted as being intrinsic in nature were more important to participants from both sport samples (as well as the combined sport sample) than the five factors noted as being extrinsic. This finding was consistent with previous research conducted by Gould et al (1981), Robertson (1981) and Watson (1975).

Although the most noteworthy observation was that the intrinsic factors as a group were more important to

 * (cont'd) eliminate this psychological bias, a constant is added to all the standard scores to make them all positive. This constant does not change the distance between any of the scale values. The most logical constant to be added is the scale value of the scale item with the largest negative deviation. As a result, this value becomes zero, while all of the other scale values become positive.

Table 11
Adjusted Paired Comparison Z Scale Values¹ and Rank Orders
for Ten Sport Enjoyment Factors by Sport

ENJOYMENT FACTOR	SOCCER (N=71)		BASEBALL (N=54)		BOTH SPORTS (N=125)	
	SCALE VALUE	RANK	SCALE VALUE	RANK	SCALE VALUE	RANK
GET REWARDS	0.40	10	0.00	10	0.13	10
WINNING THE GAME	0.86	8	0.48	9	0.61	9
PLEASING OTHERS	0.57	9	1.41	7	1.02	8
BEING WITH FRIENDS	1.37	6	1.23	8	1.27	7
BEING ON A TEAM	1.29	7	1.50	6	1.39	6
DOING THE SKILLS OF THE GAME	2.11	5	2.73	2	2.48	5
IMPROVING THE SKILLS OF THE GAME	2.84	2	2.46	5	2.65	4
COMPARING SKILLS AGAINST OTHERS	2.81	3	2.60	4	2.71	3
EXCITEMENT OF THE GAME	2.64	4	3.13	1	2.94	2
PERSONAL ACCOMPLISHMENT	3.32	1	2.68	3	2.99	1
KENDALL'S U	+0.04		+0.10		+0.06	
CHI-SQUARE	179.87*		302.98*		408.09*	

* Significant at $p < .001$

¹ The z scale values in this table have been adjusted in each distribution by adding the scale value (the lowest ranked factor) with the largest negative deviation (i.e. its positive inverse) to each of the remaining scale values. This value takes on a score of zero, while the values for the remaining factors all become positive. The largest negative deviation was: Baseball = -1.82.

enjoyment than the extrinsic factors for both sports, a closer examination revealed that the intrinsic factors varied in their order of importance, depending on the particular sport. The *excitement of the game* was the most important factor for baseball participants, whereas *personal accomplishment* was more important for the soccer participants. The scores for *doing the skills of the game*, *improving the skills of the game*, *comparing skills against others* and *personal accomplishment* were all quite similar in for the baseball participants and were comparable in magnitude to the soccer participants' scores on the factors *improving the skills of the game*, *comparing skills against others* and *excitement of the game*. The factor *doing the skills of the game* was rated as being of lesser importance by the soccer participants.

In regard to the extrinsic enjoyment factors, an examination of the item scale values for the two sports indicated that baseball participants placed greater importance on social aspects (*being on a team*, *being with friends*) and *pleasing others* than did soccer players. For both sports, the factors *winning the game* and *receiving rewards* were the least important contributors to enjoyment of sport.

In a comparison between the sports of soccer and baseball, there were no outstanding differences in the degree of importance placed on the ten enjoyment factors, with the possible exceptions of the factors seen as being

the most important within each sport. For baseball players, the enjoyment factors that were the most important focused on the inner appeal of the game itself (*the excitement of the game, doing the skills of the game*), while soccer players favored factors that focused on the individual's need for personal development (*personal accomplishment, improving the skills of the game, comparing skills against others*). In addition, the scale values for the factor *pleasing others* revealed this as being more important to participants in baseball than to those involved with soccer.

For both sport samples, the degree of importance placed on the intrinsic factors over the extrinsic factors was consistent with Csikszentmihalyi's (1975) and Deci's (1971;1975) concepts on what keeps an individual interested in an activity. Csikszentmihalyi (1975) noted that an individual would enjoy an activity if his skills matched the challenge of the activity. The emphasis placed on skill development, *personal accomplishment* and the *excitement of the game* by participants in the present study corresponded to Csikszentmihalyi's findings. Similarly, Deci (1975) noted that aspects which helped define an activity also tended to make an activity interesting to a given individual. In sport, *doing the skills of the game* and *improving the skills of the game* were aspects that helped to motivate the individual to take part in and continue the activity.

With regard to the extrinsic factors, the low amount of importance placed on the factor *receiving rewards*, although

perhaps somewhat surprising, was consistent with Deci's (1971) view that extrinsic rewards were not a necessity for an individual to be motivated to take part in an activity.

Table 12 presents the distributions of the degree of importance placed on the ten enjoyment factors by the three different age groups in the sport of soccer. As in the previous table, the ordering of the factors was accomplished through the use of z scores that were adjusted through the addition of the positive inverse of the largest negative score to each of the ten factors. For all age groups, Kendall's U statistic and its associated chi-square value indicated that there was agreement among the respondents with respect to the rank orders of the enjoyment factors at the .001 level of significance.

Although there was some variation in the order of the factors, participants from the peewee category (ages 10-12) placed more importance on the intrinsic factors than the extrinsic ones. The mite age division (ages 8-9) almost fell into the intrinsic/extrinsic patterning of the enjoyment factors, with the exception being an exchange between the intrinsic factor *excitement of the game* and the extrinsic factor *being on a team*. Participants from the mite division saw the latter factor as being third in order of importance, while the former factor was ranked as eighth.

The major exception to the intrinsic/extrinsic dichotomy occurred within the youngest age division, the mini-mite category (ages 5-7). With the exception of two

Table 12

Adjusted Paired Comparison z Scale Values¹ and Rank Orders
for Ten Sport Enjoyment Factors by Age for
the Sport of Soccer

ENJOYMENT FACTOR	MINI-MITE (AGE 5-7, N=26)		MITE (AGE 8-9, N=37)		PEEWEE (AGE 10-12, N=50)		ALL AGES (N=113)	
	SCALE VALUE	RANK	SCALE VALUE	RANK	SCALE VALUE	RANK	SCALE VALUE	RANK
PLEASING OTHERS	1.13	9	0.49	9	0.90	8	0.00	10
BEING WITH FRIENDS	1.88	5	0.32	10	2.05	6	1.10	9
GET REWARDS	2.76	2	2.25	6	0.55	10	1.35	8
BEING ON A TEAM	1.99	4	2.65	3	1.24	7	1.82	7
WINNING THE GAME	4.57	1	1.50	7	0.77	9	1.84	6
DOING THE SKILLS OF THE GAME	1.50	6	2.27	5	2.12	5	2.02	5
EXCITEMENT OF THE GAME	1.48	7	1.25	8	3.12	2	2.27	4
COMPARING SKILLS AGAINST OTHERS	0.89	10	2.36	4	2.94	3	2.48	3
IMPROVING THE SKILLS OF THE GAME	1.43	8	3.32	1	2.54	4	2.90	2
PERSONAL ACCOMPLISHMENT	2.05	3	3.29	2	3.47	1	3.91	1
KENDALL'S U	+0.04		+0.06		+0.06		+0.05	
CHI-SQUARE	122.70*		148.02*		169.64*		270.58*	

* Significant at $p < .001$

¹The positive inverse of the largest negative deviation has been added to all scale values in each distribution. This value was: All Ages= -1.97.

factors (the intrinsic factor *personal accomplishment* and the extrinsic factor *pleasing others*), the importance given to the intrinsic and extrinsic factors was reversed. In other words, the mini-mites felt that the factors defined as being extrinsic in nature were more important than those factors noted as being intrinsic. This finding was consistent with previous research conducted by Gould et al (1981), Robertson (1981) and Watson (1975) that focused on age differences of children with respect to aspects of sport enjoyment. In the present study, the mini-mite age group felt that the factor *winning the game* was clearly the most important, with the second most important factor centering on *receiving rewards*.

In a direct comparison between age groups, there was a certain amount of consensus as to the order of three of the enjoyment factors. There was considerable agreement as to the high importance given to the factor *personal accomplishment* among all three age categories. Similarly, the factor *doing the skills of the game* fell in the middle of the scale for all categories, while the enjoyment factor *pleasing others* was viewed by all three groups as being of little importance.

However, there were also striking differences between the age groups. The peewee category placed a high amount of importance on the *excitement of the game*, while the other two age groups attributed relatively little importance to that factor. *Winning the game* was seen as being very

important by the youngest age group (mini-mites), while it was given only minor importance by the mite and peewee categories. Further, the mini-mites judged two factors that focused on skill development (*comparing skills against others, improving the skills of the game*) as contributing relatively little to their enjoyment of the sport. On the other hand, these latter two factors were seen as being among the most important factors contributing to the enjoyment of the sport for the mite and peewee categories.

The differences between age groups in soccer for the ten enjoyment factors may be interpreted as follows. First, there is a certain amount of consistency as to the importance of three of the items (*personal accomplishment, doing the skills of the game, pleasing others*) across all age groups. However, the diversity between some of the other items, particularly between the youngest age group and the other two, older age divisions, suggests that there are some underlying shifts in enjoyment with age. According to Piaget's stages of intellectual development that were discussed earlier in the review of the literature (Pulaski, 1980), children between the ages of four through seven are just beginning to reason, but still desire immediate gratification (often in the form of concrete or tangible goals) when they pursue an activity. At the older age levels, the need for immediate gratification and tangible rewards lessens, as the child begins to question and sees the inherent, enjoyable aspects of the activity itself.

Some of the shifts in enjoyment with age are consistent with predictions from such a cognitive development perspective. For the participants in the youngest age category, *winning the game* was an immediate outcome, as was the act of *receiving rewards*. These are also more concrete factors, which is consistent with a cognitive development interpretation. Attaining feelings of *personal accomplishment* was also a necessity, for without these feelings, the activity could lose its attractiveness, and might subsequently be abandoned (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975; Deci, 1975; White, 1959). However, it can be seen that as age increases, the need for immediate (and concrete) gratification diminishes gradually in its intensity of importance. The factors *winning the game* and *receiving rewards* that were seen as being very important by the mini-mites were still somewhat important to the next age group (the mite category); these factors were minimal contributors toward enjoyment of sport participation by the peewee age group. These shifts with age may indicate that as cognitive development occurs, children begin to place more value on the more abstract aspects of the game (eg. *improving the skills of the game, comparing skills against others*). This is consistent with Bogianno and Ruble's (1979) hypothesis that children of different ages have different perspectives with respect to competency (and enjoyment) of an activity.

The increasing importance on the abstract aspects of the game in the present study is also consistent with Eifermann's (1971) findings. She noted that as children grew older, there was an increased desire to excel and achieve personal excellence in an activity.

C. Factors Perceived as Important to Sport Involvement

This section presents the results and interpretation of the four factors perceived as important to sport involvement that were incorporated within a Thurstonian paired comparison inventory. Table 13 presents the degree of importance that soccer and baseball participants placed on the four values. As in the previous two tables, the ordering of these factors was done through the use of Z scores that were adjusted by the removal of all negative values. Kendall's U statistic, combined with the associated chi-square value, indicated a significant amount of agreement at the .001 level for the combined sport sample and the baseball sample, and at the .05 level for the soccer sample.

It is evident from the table that all three samples displayed total agreement as to the order of these four factors. In examining the scale values for both sport samples, it can be seen that participants gave considerable importance to the factors *playing well*, *having fun* and *playing fairly*. *Winning the game* was consistently rated as being less important than the other three.

Table 13

Adjusted Paired Comparison Z Scale Values¹ and Rank Orders
for Four Factors Perceived as Important to Sport
Involvement for Soccer and Baseball

PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE FACTOR	SOCCER (N=71)		BASEBALL (N=54)		BOTH SPORTS (N=125)	
	SCALE VALUE	RANK	SCALE VALUE	RANK	SCALE VALUE	RANK
WINNING THE GAME	0.33	4	0.00	4	0.07	4
PLAYING FAIRLY	1.25	3	2.06	3	1.78	3
HAVING FUN	2.35	2	2.27	2	2.30	2
PLAYING WELL	2.92	1	2.51	1	2.69	1
KENDALL'S U	+0.02		+0.15		+0.06	
CHI-SQUARE	12.81**		55.04*		51.61*	

* Significant at $p < .001$

** Significant at $p < .05$

¹ The positive inverse of the largest negative deviation has been added to all scale values in each distribution. This value was: Baseball = -1.71.

The participants' ratings of the importance of these four factors was consistent with previous studies presented in the review of related literature (Gould et al, 1981; Sapp and Haubenstricker, 1978; Robertson, 1981; Watson, 1975). The above studies all noted that *having fun* and *playing well* were among the most important reasons for a child's continued participation in sport.

An examination of the rankings of the the four factors perceived as being important to sport involvement by the three different age groups in the sport of soccer can be found in Table 14. Adjusted Z scores (as discussed in the previous three tables) were used as the basis for the ordering of these values. With the exception of the peewee age category, the level of significance obtained in terms of agreement for Kendall's *U* and chi-square was .025. The peewee category obtained significance at the .05 level.

An examination of these four factors for the three age groups revealed comparable findings in regard to the already revealed orders of the enjoyment factors. The values *playing well* and *playing fairly* were both viewed as being consistent in their importance across all three age groups. However, the aspect of *winning the game* was viewed as being the most important of the four items for the mini-mite category, while it was seen by the other two age categories as being the least important. The only factor that totally varied between all three groups was the factor *having fun*. The importance attached to this factor increased with age.

Table 14

Adjusted Paired Comparison Z Scale Values¹ and Rank Orders
for Four Factors Perceived as Important to Sport
Involvement by Age for the Sport of Soccer

PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE FACTOR	MINI-MITE (AGE 5-7, N=26)		MITE (AGE 8-9, N=37)		PEEWEE (AGE 10-12, N=50)		ALL AGES (N=113)	
	SCALE VALUE	RANK	SCALE VALUE	RANK	SCALE VALUE	RANK	SCALE VALUE	RANK
WINNING THE GAME	2.71	1	0.03	4	0.16	4	0.00	4
PLAYING FAIRLY	1.92	3	2.26	2	1.32	3	1.86	3
HAVING FUN	0.00	4	1.60	3	2.74	1	1.98	2
PLAYING WELL	1.93	2	2.66	1	2.34	2	2.72	1
KENDALL'S U	+0.07		+0.05		+0.02		+0.02	
CHI-SQUARE	17.94***		17.50***		12.71**		16.62***	

** Significant at $p < .05$

*** Significant at $p < .025$

¹The positive inverse of the largest negative deviation has been added to all scale values in each distribution. This value was: Mini-Mite = -1.64; All Ages = -1.64.

The differences found between age groups with respect to the factor *winning the game* was consistent with the previous review of the literature (Vaz, 1974; Webb, 1969). This difference can be explained as being due to cognitive differences between age groups. Boggiano and Ruble (1979) noted that on the basis of age, children varied in their definition of competency in an activity. They noted further that older children tended to feel competent in an activity as a result of a comparative standard. Young children, however, made evaluative judgements based on an absolute standard.

In the present study then, *winning the game* was an absolute goal which young children recognized as an immediate outcome. On the other hand, older children perceived *playing well* as being a more important outcome of sport involvement. To this effect, rather than measuring their performance on an absolute "all or nothing" standard, these children preferred to evaluate their performance on a comparative, personal standard. This was consistent with the earlier findings that focused on the ten factors associated with enjoyment.

D. Factors Detracting From Sport Enjoyment

This section focuses on an identification of the differences that occurred between sports and between age groups with items that were associated with non-enjoyable aspects of sport. Table 15 presents the means, standard

deviations and percentages of agreement that existed for the soccer and baseball participants on the twenty-six dislike items. In a comparison between sports, there was very little difference between the two sports in regard to the amount of agreement/disagreement given to the majority of the items. For the most part, the participants indicated that these variables were not influential in eroding the enjoyment of their sport.

For many of the items, it was discovered that the percentage distribution from both sports was positively skewed. In other words, there tended to be a low percentage of agreement with the items by the sport participants. This was the case for eleven of the variables: *coach criticizes* (25.9% agreement among baseball, 28.6% agreement among soccer); *sport is too time consuming* (11.2% agreement among baseball, 19.8% agreement among soccer); *hate being watched* (9.5% agreement among baseball, 18.3% agreement among soccer); *waiting around* (13% agreement among baseball, 7.1% agreement among soccer); *not part of action* (14.9% agreement among baseball, 21.2% agreement among soccer); *unequal treatment* (29.7% agreement among baseball, 24% agreement among soccer); *no choice of position* (22.6% agreement among baseball, 35.7% agreement among soccer); *team is not serious enough* (20.8% agreement among baseball, 21.2% agreement among soccer); *some players are too good* (20.7% agreement among baseball, 22.9% agreement among soccer); *coach is unknowledgable* (5.6% agreement among baseball, 21.1%

Table 15

Means, Standard Deviations and Percentages of Likert Dislike Items
for the Sports of Soccer and Baseball

FACTOR	SPORT ¹	MEAN	ST. DEV.	PERCENTAGE OF AGREEMENT				
				S.D.	D.	U.	A.	S.A.
TOO SERIOUS	BBALL	2.78	1.19	14.8	27.8	33.3	13.0	11.1
	SOC	2.94	1.22	14.1	22.5	29.6	22.5	11.3
PEOPLE WANT TO WIN TOO MUCH	BBALL	2.89	1.40	18.9	28.3	15.1	20.8	17.0
	SOC	3.86	1.08	1.4	14.3	14.3	37.1	32.9
HATE LOSING	BBALL	3.04	1.45	18.5	25.9	9.3	25.9	20.4
	SOC	3.29	1.49	17.1	18.6	11.4	24.3	28.6
COACH CRITICIZES	BBALL	2.44	1.42	38.9	14.8	20.4	14.8	11.1
	SOC	2.60	1.44	30.0	24.3	17.1	12.9	15.7
HATE PRACTICES	BBALL	2.06	1.24	38.9	38.9	11.1	0.0	11.1
	SOC	2.80	1.40	21.4	27.1	18.6	15.7	17.1
GET HURT	BBALL	2.70	1.55	29.6	27.8	5.6	16.7	20.4
	SOC	3.16	1.42	17.1	18.6	18.6	22.9	22.9
SPORT TIME CONSUMING	BBALL	1.89	1.18	51.9	24.1	13.0	5.6	5.6
	SOC	2.14	1.36	47.9	18.3	14.1	11.3	8.5
HATE BEING WATCHED	BBALL	1.62	1.08	66.0	18.9	5.7	5.7	3.8
	SOC	2.01	1.30	50.7	22.5	8.5	11.3	7.0
WAITING AROUND	BBALL	2.20	1.22	37.0	25.9	24.1	5.6	7.4
	SOC	1.99	1.07	38.6	37.1	17.1	1.4	5.7
NOT PART OF ACTION	BBALL	1.94	1.22	50.0	25.9	9.3	9.3	5.6
	SOC	2.21	1.34	42.3	23.9	12.7	12.7	8.5
UNEQUAL TREATMENT	BBALL	2.61	1.35	29.6	18.5	22.2	20.4	9.3
	SOC	2.45	1.36	32.4	25.4	18.3	12.7	11.3
BEING COMPARED	BBALL	2.15	1.26	43.4	20.8	18.9	11.3	5.7
	SOC	2.69	1.45	30.0	20.0	15.7	20.0	14.3

Table 15 (continued)

FACTOR	SPORT ¹	MEAN	ST. DEV.	PERCENTAGE OF AGREEMENT				
				S.D.	D.	U.	A.	S.A.
BEING ORDERED ABOUT	BBALL	2.33	1.26	31.5	31.5	16.7	13.0	7.4
	SOC	2.87	1.39	18.3	29.6	16.9	16.9	18.3
PEOPLE CHEATING	BBALL	3.13	1.51	22.2	14.8	14.8	24.1	24.1
	SOC	3.83	1.24	9.9	4.2	14.1	36.6	35.2
NO CHOICE OF POSITION	BBALL	2.34	1.44	41.5	18.9	17.0	9.4	13.2
	SOC	2.69	1.49	31.4	20.0	12.9	20.0	15.7
TEAM NOT SERIOUS	BBALL	2.51	1.38	30.2	24.5	24.5	5.7	15.1
	SOC	2.41	1.27	29.6	29.6	19.7	12.7	8.5
PLAYERS TOO GOOD	BBALL	2.27	1.35	45.3	15.1	18.9	13.2	7.5
	SOC	2.41	1.37	31.4	31.4	14.3	10.0	12.9
PLAYERS NOT GOOD	BBALL	3.33	1.41	14.8	14.8	20.4	22.2	27.8
	SOC	2.94	1.49	24.3	18.6	17.1	18.6	21.4
COACH UNKNOWNLEDGABLE	BBALL	1.69	0.93	53.7	31.5	9.3	3.7	1.9
	SOC	2.10	1.49	56.3	12.7	9.9	7.0	14.1
CROWD BOOS	BBALL	2.48	1.46	36.5	21.2	13.5	15.4	13.5
	SOC	3.00	1.56	26.6	15.6	14.1 ^a	18.8	25.0
GET TOO TIRED	BBALL	1.63	1.02	63.0	22.2	5.6	7.4	1.9
	SOC	2.31	1.54	48.5	13.2	13.2	8.8	16.2
TEAMMATES GET MAD	BBALL	3.06	1.46	18.5	22.2	18.5	16.7	24.1
	SOC	3.14	1.42	20.0	14.3	15.7	21.4	18.6
PARENTS WANT BETTER	BBALL	2.07	1.23	40.7	35.2	5.6	13.0	5.6
	SOC	2.53	1.55	39.7	16.2	13.2	13.2	17.6
BAD CALLS REF	BBALL	4.19	1.10	5.6	3.7	7.4	37.3	50.0
	SOC	4.17	1.21	4.2	8.5	4.2	32.4	50.7
DIRTY RULES	BBALL	3.19	1.48	18.5	13.0	18.5	27.8	22.2
	SOC	3.48	1.39	11.3	16.9	16.9	22.5	32.4

Table 15 (continued)

FACTOR	SPORT ¹	MEAN	ST. DEV.	PERCENTAGE OF AGREEMENT				
				S.D.	D.	U.	A.	S.A.
BAD WEATHER	BBALL	3.22	1.42	18.5	13.0	18.5	27.8	22.2
	SOC	3.23	1.47	21.1	11.3	14.1	31.0	22.5

¹BBALL refers to the sport of Baseball (ages 9-13) N = 54.

SOC refers to the sport of soccer (ages 9-12) N = 71.

agreement among soccer); and *parents want a better performance* (18.6% agreement among baseball, 30.8% agreement among soccer).

The means for the above eleven items for each sport sample were all low. However, it can be seen from the above percentages of agreement that there were individual differences present among the participants themselves. The results of these findings indicated that certain items can cause loss of enjoyment for individual children within sport, despite the fact that the derived means indicated that for participants in general, the items do not negatively effect sport enjoyment.

Three variables from the distributions of soccer and baseball were negatively skewed; for these items, there was a high percentage of agreement among participants from both sport samples that these items reduced enjoyment. These items were: *bad calls* (87.3% agreement among baseball, 83.1% agreement among soccer); *bad weather* (50% agreement among baseball, 51% agreement among soccer); and *dumb rules* (50% agreement among baseball, 54.9% agreement among soccer). These items represented aspects within the sports which can be frustrating to participants, but for the most part, merely reflect personal grievances which may or may not be justified (depending on the situational circumstances).

In order to determine if there were differences between the two sports in regard to the dislike items, a test of means was performed on each of the twenty-six variables.

Table 16 presents the significant values of t that indicate the dislike items for which the scores of the baseball and soccer samples were different. In total, six of the original twenty-six variables were significantly different between the two sports at the .05 level. The complete t -value statistics for the non-significant factors can be found in Appendix B.

An examination of the differences between sports revealed that for the majority of the dislike statements, a greater percentage of soccer participants agreed with the items than was the case for baseball; however, for the majority of the items the differences in the means of the items between the two sports were not statistically significant. The t -tests indicated that soccer and baseball participants differed significantly in their responses to the items: (*people want to win too much; dislike practices; get too tired; people cheating; being ordered about; and being compared against others* (Table 16). The means from this table indicated that soccer players tended to agree with the all of these items more than baseball participants. However, among soccer players, only two of the items (*people want to win too much, people cheating*) had high means to show this agreement. Although statistical differences were also found for the other four items, the means from the soccer participants, although higher than the baseball participants, nonetheless indicated a rather low amount of agreement in support of the variables.

Table 16

Significant¹ Values of t Measuring Between Sport Differences
for Likert Dislike Items

FACTOR	SPORT ²	MEAN	ST.DEV.	t VALUE	DF	2-TAIL PROB.
PEOPLE WANT TO WIN TOO MUCH	BASEBALL	2.89	1.40	-4.20	95.13	p=.000
	SOCCER	3.86	1.08			
HATE PRACTICES	BASEBALL	2.06	1.24	-3.14	119.76	p=.002
	SOCCER	2.80	1.40			
GET TOO TIRED	BASEBALL	1.63	1.02	-2.93	116.38	p=.004
	SOCCER	2.31	1.54			
PEOPLE CHEATING	BASEBALL	3.13	1.51	-2.78	101.49	p=.006
	SOCCER	3.83	1.24			
BEING ORDERED ABOUT	BASEBALL	2.33	1.26	-2.27	119.33	p=.025
	SOCCER	2.87	1.39			
BEING COMPARED	BASEBALL	2.15	1.26	-2.18	118.61	p=.031
	SOCCER	2.69	1.45			

¹The significance level was set at $p < .05$ for rejection of the null hypothesis.

²Pairwise deletion was used with this program.

The tendency for soccer participants to agree more with the negative factors than do baseball participants cannot be readily explained. In fact, this finding is quite surprising in view of the greater number of boys participating in the sport. Whether these differences just reflected different response tendencies on the part of the two groups of participants, or whether there are real differences in the organization and conduct of the two sports is can not be determined from the current data.

The one difference which might be interpretable on the basis of structural differences between the sports was the factor *get too tired*. Soccer involves much more running, as the nature of the game is for the participants to move the ball up and down the field. In conjunction with this finding was the observed tendency (although not statistically significant) for the baseball participants to report greater agreement than the soccer participants with the *waiting around* item.

Table 17 presents the means, standard deviations and percentages of respondents from the three age divisions in soccer agreeing with the twenty-six Likert dislike items. For the three age groups, the percentages of agreement and disagreement within the frequency distributions of the Likert dislike variables revealed some similarities between all three age groups.

As in the previous table, most of the variables were not influential in affecting sport enjoyment. Ten of the

Table 17 .

Means, Standard Deviations and Percentages of Likert Dislike Items
for Age Groups in Soccer

FACTOR	AGE 1 GROUP	MEAN	ST. DEV.	PERCENTAGE OF AGREEMENT				
				S.D.	D.	U.	A.	S.A.
TOO SERIOUS	MM ²	1.77	0.82	—	46.2	30.8	23.1	—
	MT	3.41	1.21	8.1	16.2	21.6	35.1	18.9
	PW	2.68	1.17	18.0	26.0	34.0	14.0	8.0
PEOPLE WANT TO WIN TOO MUCH	MM	2.23	0.86	—	26.9	23.1	50.0	—
	MT	3.83	1.08	5.6	5.6	16.7	43.2	27.8
	PW	3.74	1.14	2.0	18.0	14.0	36.0	30.0
HATE LOSING	MM	2.15	0.97	—	38.5	7.7	53.8	—
	MT	2.81	1.51	32.4	8.1	21.6	21.6	16.2
	PW	3.51	1.43	10.2	22.4	8.2	24.5	34.7
COACH CRITICIZES	MM	1.50	0.81	—	69.2	11.5	19.2	—
	MT	2.64	1.42	33.3	11.1	25.0	19.4	11.1
	PW	2.67	1.51	28.6	26.5	14.3	10.2	20.4
HATE PRACTICES	MM	1.73	0.92	—	57.7	11.5	30.8	—
	MT	2.16	1.34	37.8	37.8	8.1	2.7	13.5
	PW	3.00	1.37	16.3	24.5	20.4	20.4	18.4
GET HURT	MM	2.46	0.91	—	26.9	0.0	73.1	—
	MT	2.92	1.56	30.6	8.3	22.2	16.7	22.2
	PW	3.36	1.38	12.0	20.0	14.0	28.0	26.0
SPORT TIME CONSUMING	MM	1.85	0.97	—	53.8	7.7	38.5	—
	MT	2.19	1.41	48.6	16.2	10.8	16.2	8.1
	PW	2.00	1.25	50.0	20.0	16.0	8.0	6.0
HATE BEING WATCHED	MM	1.39	0.80	—	80.8	0.0	19.2	—
	MT	2.22	1.32	37.8	29.7	16.2	5.4	10.8
	PW	1.96	1.28	52.0	24.0	6.0	12.0	6.0
WAITING AROUND	MM	1.42	0.76	—	73.1	11.5	15.4	—
	MT	2.46	1.39	27.0	37.8	13.5	5.4	16.2
	PW	2.02	1.13	40.8	30.6	20.4	2.0	6.1

Table 17 (continued)

FACTOR	AGE GROUP ¹	MEAN	ST. DEV.	PERCENTAGE OF AGREEMENT				
				S.D.	D.	U.	A.	S.A.
NOT PART OF ACTION	MM ²	1.54	0.81	—	65.4	15.4	19.2	—
	MT	2.46	1.30	27.0	35.1	10.8	18.9	8.1
	PW	2.18	1.32	44.0	20.0	18.0	10.0	8.0
UNEQUAL TREATMENT	MM	1.54	0.81	—	65.4	15.4	19.2	—
	MT	2.75	1.36	25.0	16.7	30.6	13.9	13.9
	PW	2.30	1.28	34.0	30.0	16.0	12.0	8.0
BEING COMPARED	MM	1.46	0.76	—	69.2	15.4	15.4	—
	MT	2.87	1.44	24.3	18.9	18.9	21.6	16.2
	PW	2.63	1.42	30.6	20.4	16.3	20.4	12.2
BEING ORDERED ABOUT	MM	1.77	0.95	—	57.7	7.7	34.6	—
	MT	2.95	1.51	24.3	21.6	8.1	27.0	18.9
	PW	2.86	1.33	16.0	30.0	22.0	16.0	16.0
PEOPLE CHEATING	MM	2.27	0.96	—	34.6	3.8	61.5	—
	MT	3.97	1.38	13.5	2.7	5.4	29.7	48.6
	PW	3.80	1.20	8.0	6.0	16.0	38.0	32.0
NO CHOICE OF POSITION	MM	2.31	0.88	—	26.9	15.4	57.7	—
	MT	3.44	1.40	16.7	8.3	13.9	36.1	25.0
	PW	2.49	1.43	34.7	22.4	14.3	16.3	12.2
TEAM NOT SERIOUS	MM	1.92	0.89	—	42.3	23.1	34.6	—
	MT	2.24	1.38	43.2	18.9	18.9	8.1	10.8
	PW	2.56	1.23	22.0	32.0	22.0	16.0	8.0
PLAYERS TOO GOOD	MM	2.19	0.98	—	38.5	3.8	57.7	—
	MT	2.54	1.37	27.0	32.4	10.8	18.9	10.8
	PW	2.33	1.33	32.7	32.7	16.3	6.1	12.2
PLAYERS NOT GOOD	MM	2.62	0.75	—	15.4	7.7	76.9	—
	MT	2.94	1.45	25.0	13.9	19.4	25.0	16.7
	PW	3.02	1.46	20.0	22.0	16.0	20.0	22.0
COACH UNKNOWLEDGABLE	MM	1.27	0.67	—	84.6	3.8	11.5	—
	MT	2.32	1.33	43.2	24.3	5.4	10.8	16.2
	PW	2.00	1.49	62.0	8.0	12.0	4.0	14.0

Table 17 (continued)

FACTOR	AGE GROUP ¹	MEAN	ST. DEV.	PERCENTAGE OF AGREEMENT				
				S.D.	D.	U.	A.	S.A.
CROWD BOOS	MM ²	1.33	0.76	—	76.9	15.4	7.7	—
	MT	3.62	1.46	14.7	8.8	14.7	23.5	38.2
	PW	2.82	1.57	31.1	15.6	15.6	15.6	22.2
GET TOO TIRED	MM	2.19	0.90	—	30.8	19.2	50.0	—
	MT	2.51	1.58	40.0	20.0	5.7	17.1	17.1
	PW	2.20	1.44	49.0	14.3	16.3	8.2	12.2
TEAMMATES GET MAD	MM	1.35	0.75	—	80.8	3.8	15.4	—
	MT	3.32	1.63	26.5	8.8	0.0	35.3	29.4
	PW	3.10	1.28	14.0	20.0	22.0	30.0	14.0
PARENTS WANT BETTER	MM	1.89	0.99	—	53.8	3.8	42.3	—
	MT	2.81	1.51	27.0	18.9	21.6	10.8	21.6
	PW	2.38	1.50	44.7	12.8	14.9	14.9	12.8
BAD CALLS REF	MM	1.69	0.79	—	50.0	30.8	19.2	—
	MT	4.03	1.25	8.3	5.6	8.3	30.6	47.2
	PW	4.28	0.97	0.0	10.0	6.0	30.0	54.4
DUMB RULES	MM	1.69	0.97	—	65.4	0.0	34.6	—
	MT	3.54	1.37	13.5	10.8	10.8	37.8	27.0
	PW	3.42	1.39	10.0	20.0	20.0	18.0	32.0
BAD WEATHER	MM	2.39	0.94	—	30.8	0.0	69.2	—
	MT	2.97	1.71	37.8	5.4	2.7	29.7	24.3
	PW	3.28	1.36	14.0	16.0	20.0	28.0	22.0

- ¹ MM refers to the Mini-Mite division (ages 5-7) N = 26.
 MT refers to the Mite division (ages 8-9) N = 37.
 PW refers to the Pee-wee division (ages 10-12) N = 50.

- ² The Mini-Mite division used a three point scale with the 26 Likert items. The other two age divisions used a five point scale.

variables were positively skewed for all three age categories of soccer participants (i.e. low means were obtained, which indicated that participants tended to disagree with the variables). These items (along with the percentages of agreement from each age group) were: *coach criticizes* (19.2% mini-mites agreed, 40.5% mites agreed, 30.6% peewees agreed); *sport is too time consuming* (38.5% mini-mites agreed, 24.3% mites agreed, 14% peewees agreed); *hate being watched* (19.2% mini-mites agreed, 16.2% mites agreed, 18% peewees agreed); *waiting around* (15.4% mini-mites agreed, 21.6% mites agreed, 8.1% peewees agreed); *not part of action* (19.2% mini-mites agreed, 27% mites agreed, 18% peewees agreed); *unequal treatment* (19.2% mini-mites agreed, 27.8% mites agreed, 20% peewees agreed); *being compared against others* (15.4% mini-mites agreed, 37.8% mites agreed, 32.6% peewees agreed); *team is not serious enough* (34.6% mini-mites agreed, 18.9% mites agreed, 24% peewees agreed); *coach is unknowledgable* (11.5% mini-mites agreed, 27% mites agreed, 18% peewees agreed); and *parents want a better performance* (42.3% mini-mites agreed, 32.4% mites agreed, 27.7% peewees agreed).

As was the case for participants between sports, although the general consensus among participants was that these items (as indicated by the low means) did not strongly detract from enjoyment of sport, the percentages of agreement of the items were quite high for one or more of the age groups. This demonstrated that across age groups,

some items were detrimental to sport enjoyment for participants on an individual basis.

For all age categories, three items were found to be negatively skewed (i.e. participants tended to agree that the items disrupted their enjoyment of sport). These items were: *people want to win too much* (50% mini-mites agreed, 70% mites agreed, 66% peewees agreed); *people cheating* (61.5% mini-mites agreed, 78.3 mites agreed, 70% peewees agreed); and *bad weather* (69.2% mini-mites agreed, 54% mites agreed, 50% peewees agreed).

A oneway analysis of variance was performed on each of the twenty-six variables to determine if there were any differences between the three age groups. Table 18 presents ten variables on which two or more of the groups had significantly different scores. The complete oneway analysis of variance statistics for all twenty-six dislike items can be found in Appendix C.

Briefly, the ten items that were significantly different between two or more of the age groups were as follows:

1. *Bad calls by the referee, crowd boos, teammates get mad when the participant does not play well, some players are not good enough* - These items were different between the mini-mite and mite divisions, and between the mini-mite and peewee divisions. The peewee and mite participants disagreed more with the first three items

Table 18

Analyses of Variance of Significant¹
Likert Dislike Factors for
Age Divisions in Soccer

FACTOR	AGE DIVISIONS ²	MEAN ³	ST.DEV.	F RATIO	SIGNIF.
BAD CALLS REF	MM	1.69 a	0.79	20.79*	P=.000
	MT	2.64 b	0.72		
	PW	2.74 b	0.63		
	COMBINED	2.46	0.82		
CROWD BOOS	MM	1.33 a	0.76	10.34	P=.000
	MT	2.38 b	0.85		
	PW	1.91 b	0.93		
	COMBINED	1.93	0.94		
TEAMMATES GET MAD	MM	1.35 a	0.92	9.31	P=.000
	MT	2.29 b	0.97		
	PW	2.10 b	0.89		
	COMBINED	1.98	0.95		
NO CHOICE OF POSITION	MM	2.31 a	0.88	6.90	P=.002
	MT	2.30 a	0.85		
	PW	1.71 b	0.89		
	COMBINED	2.06	0.93		
TEAM TOO SERIOUS	MM	1.77 a	0.82	5.10	P=.008
	MT	2.30 b	0.85		
	PW	1.78 a	0.79		
	COMBINED	1.95	0.84		
DUMB RULES	MM	1.69 a	0.97	4.97	P=.009
	MT	2.41 b	0.87		
	PW	2.20 ab	0.88		
	COMBINED	2.15	0.93		
PLAYERS TOO GOOD	MM	2.19 a	0.98	4.88	P=.009
	MT	1.70 ab	0.91		
	PW	1.53 b	0.79		
	COMBINED	1.74	0.91		

Table 18 (continued)

FACTOR	AGE DIVISIONS ²	MEAN ³	ST.DEV.	F RATIO	SIGNIF.
HATE PRACTICES	MM	1.73 ab	0.92	4.68	p=.011
	MT	1.41 a	0.76		
	PW	1.98 b	0.90		
	COMBINED	1.73	0.89		
PLAYERS NOT GOOD	MM	2.62 a	0.75	4.67	p=.011
	MT	2.03 b	0.91		
	PW	2.00 b	0.93		
	COMBINED	2.15	0.91		
GET TOO TIRED	MM	2.19 a	0.90	4.27	p=.017
	MT	1.74 ab	0.95		
	PW	1.57 b	0.82		
	COMBINED	1.77	0.91		

¹The significance level was set at $p < .05$ for rejection of the null hypothesis.

²For the analysis of variance program, all items for each of the age groups was measured on a three point scale.

Pairwise deletion was used with this program.

MM refers to the Mini-Mite division (ages 5-7) of the soccer program.

MT refers to the Mite division (ages 8-9) of the soccer program.

PW refers to the Pee wee division (ages 10-12) of the soccer program.

³If subscripts (a,b) are different, the means are different according to Scheffe post hoc test.

than the mini-mite participants; the reverse was true for the fourth item.

2. *team too serious* - This item was different between the mini-mite and mite divisions, and between the mite and peewee divisions. The mites tended to agree with this item to a greater extent than the other two age divisions.
3. *no choice of position* - This item was different between the mini-mite and peewee divisions, and between the mite and peewee divisions. The peewees tended to disagree with this item to a greater extent than the other two age divisions did.
4. *dumb rules* - This item was different between the mini-mite and mite divisions. The mites tended to agree with this item to a greater extent than the mini-mites did.
5. *some players are too good, get too tired* - These items were different between the mini-mite and peewee divisions. The mini-mites tended to agree with these items more readily than the peewee participants.
6. *dislike practices* - This item was different between the mite and peewee divisions. The peewee participants

tended to agree with this item more readily than the peewee participants.

The differences between the three age groups with regard to the above factors cannot, for the most part, be readily explained. It was possible that these differences just reflected different response tendencies on the part of the participants. However, it was also possible that significant differences could have occurred as a result of the large number of comparisons that were made. In the analysis of variance procedure, twenty-six tests were performed. As a result, the probability of attaining significant results by chance was increased substantially.

One of the factors found to be significantly different between age groups can be explained as being due to cognitive differences in the respondents within the different age categories. In a comparison between the mini-mites, the mites and the peewees, the frequency data and the analysis of variance both revealed that *bad calls* was a distinguishing variable that bothered the older participants more than the younger ones. This may be due to the increasing familiarity with the relatively complex rules of soccer with increasing age, and hence awareness of poor officiating calls. With mini-mite players, there may be little real understanding of the rules, and hence little questioning of their application by an official. Older children also may be generally more willing to question

authority figures than younger children (Hurlock, 1980; Pulaski, 1980). It was also possible that the differences between the age groups with respect to this factor was a result of the rules of the game being more stringently enforced with the older children than with the younger ones.

V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Summary of the Study

This study was designed to investigate the various aspects within sport that might explain what children enjoy and do not enjoy when they participate in organized sport. To substantiate the study, a comprehensive review of the literature was carried out to determine if aspects associated with enjoyment of sport were previously identified by other researchers. Several studies were uncovered that examined the possible reasons children had for participating in organized sport (Eifermann, 1971; Robertson, 1981; Sapp and Haubenstricker, 1978; Seefeldt et al, 1978; Watson, 1975; Wood, 1980). For example, Robertson (1981) and Watson (1975) found that aspects such as *fun, excitement, competing, winning and playing well* were factors that contributed toward a child's enjoyment of sport. Sapp and Haubenstricker (1978) found that that children participated in sport to: *have fun, improve their sport skills, get fit and make new friends.*

Other research has also noted that age differences of children can account for differences with regard to what makes a sport enjoyable (Gould et al, 1981; Vaz, 1974; Webb, 1969). For example, Watson (1975) and Gould et al (1981) noted that extrinsic rewards such as *trophies and pleasing others* were popular indicators of enjoyment for young children, but lessened in importance as the children grew

older.

In addition to factors associated with enjoyment, many of the above studies (Gould et al, 1981; Robertson, 1981; Sapp and Haubenstricker, 1978; Watson, 1975) also noted factors that were detrimental to sport enjoyment. Aspects such as *being criticized and yelled at, getting injured, bad officiating* and *bad weather* were mentioned by children as being detrimental to their enjoyment of sport.

On the basis of the review of literature, a questionnaire was developed in order to measure three areas pertaining to sport enjoyment. The first area in the questionnaire dealt with ten specific aspects within sport that were thought to contribute to children's enjoyment. The second area looked at four general factors perceived as being important to sport involvement, while the third area presented twenty-six factors thought to be detrimental to sport enjoyment.

After pilot testing of the instrument to ensure its reliability and appropriateness for the age group involved in the study, the questionnaire was administered to the sport sample using a standardized testing procedure. Fifty-four baseball participants and 113 soccer participants constituted the sample for the study. All teams for the sample were drawn from the south-east section of the City of Edmonton. The soccer teams were selected at random across three age divisions, while the baseball teams in the sample represented the total population of teams from one age

division in that area of the city.

It was found that the participants from the sports of baseball and soccer were both generally satisfied with their minor sport experiences. In regard to the ten specific factors focusing on enjoyment, it was generally discovered that aspects inherent within the sport itself (eg. *excitement of the game, doing the skills of the game, comparing skills against others improving the skills of the game*) were more important to participants than external variables (eg. *winning the game, pleasing others, receiving rewards*). This was the case for participants from both sport samples, with the exception of the mini-mite age category in soccer; participants from this age category tended to favor the external (or extrinsic) factors more than the intrinsic ones. Although all participants valued the attainment of feelings of *personal accomplishment*, the mini-mite participants expressed this through the achievement of *receiving tangible rewards or winning the game*. However, the other participants in the study attained feelings of personal satisfaction through the accomplishment of the more abstract concepts inherent within the sports themselves (most notably by *improving the skills of the game, comparing skills against others and doing the skills of the game*). Soccer participants also mentioned that *scoring goals* was another factor that contributed to their enjoyment of sport.

The results concerning the four perceived importance factors substantiated the findings pertaining to enjoyment.

Between sport groups, both the baseball and soccer players placed an equivalent amount of importance on the factors *playing well* and *having fun*, and less importance on the factor *playing fairly*. *Winning the game* was the least important factor for both sport groups. Between age divisions in soccer, *winning the game* was very important only to the mini-mite participants. The mite participants placed the most importance on the factors *playing well* and *playing fairly*, while the peewee participants viewed the factors *having fun* and *playing well* as being the most important.

For the twenty-six factors thought to be detrimental to enjoyment of sport, the results of the study revealed that in general, participants seemed quite satisfied with their sports. The study found that across both sport groups combined, the variables *bad weather*, *dumb rules* and *bad calls by the referee* were the only three aspects of sport that the majority of the participants felt were detrimental to their enjoyment of the sport. For all the soccer participants (across age), the only items that were detrimental to the majority of participants were the factors *people want to win too much*, *people cheating* and *bad weather*.

Although many variables were seen as not being detrimental on the basis of their derived means, an examination of the percentages of agreement and disagreement revealed that there was agreement with most of the items on

an individual basis. Across both sport groups, this was particularly outstanding for the items *coach criticizes*, *unequal treatment*, *no choice of position* and *parents want a better performance*. Across the three soccer age divisions, this finding was evident for the above four items, as well as the variables *sport is too time consuming*, *being compared against others* and *team is not serious enough*.

Although statistical differences were noted for six of the items (*people want to win too much*, *dislike practices*, *get too tired*, *people cheating*, *being compared against others*) between the two sport groups, the only aspect that could be readily interpreted was the factor *get too tired*. The reason for this difference was attributed to the structural differences between the two sports, which necessitates that soccer players move much more constantly than baseball players. Between the soccer age divisions, statistical differences were noted for ten of the items; however, the only item that was readily interpretable was the factor *bad calls by the referee*. It was found that this factor bothered the mite and peewee participants to a much greater extent than for the mini-mites. Two interpretations were offered for this result. First, a developmental perspective was offered wherein it was suggested that the mini-mite participants may have limited conceptualization of the rules and hence, the referee's decisions would be accepted more readily by this age group than by the older participants. Secondly, it was possible that the rules of

the game were enforced to a greater extent for the older participants than for the younger ones.

B. Conclusions

On the basis of the findings from this study, a number of conclusions may be stated:

1. Overall, it was found that the participants from the sample frame used in this study were satisfied with the experiences they derived through participation in minor sport.
2. In regard to factors associated with enjoyment, it was found that intrinsic aspects that were inherent to the sports themselves were viewed by the majority of the participants as being more important contributors toward enjoyment than those factors that were more external to the activity itself. It is therefore evident that most participants are attracted to the sports essentially for doing the sports themselves, rather than for external reasons (such as attaining status or rewards).
3. In this study, very young participants in soccer (ages 5-7) measured enjoyment of sport as being aspects within sport that were concrete and more extrinsic in nature. The most popular measurers of enjoyment for this age group were in the form of receiving tangible rewards, or

winning the game. Winning the game was also seen as an essential value for sport participation by this age group. However, as age increased, those participants that remained with the sport began to view enjoyment of sport in terms of the intrinsic aspects rather than extrinsic ones.

4. In regard to the factors perceived as important for sport involvement, the majority of participants felt that playing well was important in their sport. This finding was consistent with the participants' views regarding the ordering of the specific factors related to enjoyment of sport.
5. In regard to factors detracting from sport enjoyment, it was found that overall, the majority of the items did not affect the participants' enjoyment of sport. Despite this overall finding, it was noted that a considerable number of individuals indicated that many of these factors would in fact be detrimental to their enjoyment of sport.

C. Recommendations for Sport Programs

On the basis of the results of this study, it is suggested that in order to maximize the enjoyment derived from minor sport programs, program organizers should

consider the following:

1. Emphasis should be placed on having each child attain a sense of personal accomplishment. It should be realized that this aspect is very important for a child's continued participation in sport.
2. Coaches and sport organizers should encourage the child's attainment of personal self-improvement through the provision of opportunities in sport for *doing the skills of the game, comparing skills against others and improving the skills of the game.*
3. It might be desirable to de-emphasize the extrinsic factors *receiving rewards and winning the game* (if they are currently emphasized), as these factors were seen as being relatively unimportant to the sport participants.
4. It must be noted that the results concerning the enjoyment factors were compiled totals from responses by the sport participants; however, it must be realized that individual children vary in their preferences toward sport enjoyment. As a result, coaches and sport organizers should be flexible enough to alter their program to best serve the needs of the children that they are directly dealing with, to ensure that the children are attaining as positive an experience as

possible.

5. The non-enjoyment variables *people want to win too much* and *people cheating* were seen by the majority of sport participants as being detrimental toward an individual's enjoyment of sport. It is therefore recommended that coaches and sport organizers be aware of these problem areas, and try to control them as much as possible.
6. Although participants (as a total sample) were generally satisfied their sport programs, it was discovered that on an individual basis, many of the variables (particularly *no choice of position*, *coach criticizes* and *being compared against others*) were seen as aspects that disrupted children's enjoyment of sport. As a result, efforts should be directed toward coaches and program organizers to be aware that individual differences among children exist; in other words, do not assume that certain aspects of sport that do not bother some children will not bother others.

D. Recommendations for Further Research

Based on the results of this study, the following recommendations are made concerning further research:

1. The sample used in this study was small and thus

precludes any broad generalizations regarding differences between participants on the basis of sport and age. Further testing should be done with a larger and more representative sample to see if there is consistency in the ordering of the enjoyment and dislike factors obtained in the present study.

2. Research in the area of enjoyment of sport should be directed toward the analysis of female involvement in sport. Comparisons could then be examined between sexes to determine if certain aspects of sport appealed more to one gender than the other.
3. Research should be conducted into the enjoyment aspects of sport for older age groups (i.e. Bantam - ages 13/14; Midget - ages 15/16; and Juvenile - ages 17/18, and adult participation) and also for other sports.

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APPENDIX A THE QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA
MINOR SPORT ENJOYMENT INVENTORY

3/1981

PERSONAL PROFILE SHEET

Name _____ Age _____

Team _____

Sport Baseball

PART I PERSONAL FEELINGS ABOUT SPORT INVOLVEMENT

1. Do you like playing baseball? Yes ____ No ____
2. What do you like the BEST about playing baseball? (One reason only)

3. Is there anything else that you like about playing baseball?

4. Is there anything you don't like about playing baseball? Yes ____ No ____
5. If "yes" was answered for question 4, what do you dislike the MOST about playing baseball? (One reason only) _____
6. Is there anything else that you dislike about playing baseball?

7. Is there anything you would like to change about baseball? Yes ____ No ____
If "yes", what would this be? _____
8. Whose decision was it that you would play baseball this year?

Yours _____
Your Parents' _____
You & Your Parents' _____
9. Did anyone influence you or encourage you to join baseball? Yes ____ No ____
10. If "yes" was answered for question 9, who was it? _____

WHAT I ENJOY ABOUT PLAYING BASEBALL

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	True For Me		SAMPLE STATEMENTS			True For Me
a.	☐	Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they get to have good officials.	BUT	Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they get to play on different fields.		☐
b.	☐	Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they get to play with good equipment.	BUT	Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they get to have good officials.		☐
11.	☐	Some boys enjoy playing baseball because it gives them a chance to be with friends.	BUT	Other boys enjoy playing baseball because it gives them a chance to get rewards.		☐
12.	☐	Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like doing the skills of the game.	BUT	Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they feel good when they've played well.		☐
13.	☐	Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like the excitement of the game.	BUT	Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to improve their ability at the game.		☐
14.	☐	Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to win.	BUT	Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to test their ability against other players.		☐
15.	☐	Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to be a member of a team.	BUT	Other boys enjoy playing baseball because it gives them a chance to be with friends.		☐
16.	☐	Some boys enjoy playing baseball because their playing pleases others important to them.	BUT	Other boys enjoy playing baseball because it gives them a chance to get rewards.		☐
17.	☐	Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to improve their ability at the game.	BUT	Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like doing the skills of the game.		☐
18.	☐	Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to test their ability against other players	BUT	Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like the excitement of the game.		☐

- | True
For Me | | | 147 True
For Me |
|------------------------------|--|-----|---|
| 19. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to be a member of a team. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to win. ☐ |
| 20. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because it gives them a chance to be with friends. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because their playing pleases others important to them. ☐ |
| 21. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because it gives them a chance to get rewards. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they feel good when they've played well. ☐ |
| 22. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like doing the skills of the game. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to test their ability against other players. ☐ |
| 23. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like the excitement of the game. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to be a member of a team. ☐ |
| 24. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to win. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because it gives them a chance to be with friends. ☐ |
| 25. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they feel good when they've played well. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because their playing pleases others important to them. ☐ |
| 26. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to improve their ability at the game. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because it gives them a chance to get rewards. ☐ |
| 27. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to be a member of a team. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like doing the skills of the game. ☐ |
| 28. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to win. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like the excitement of the game. ☐ |
| 29. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because it gives them a chance to be with friends. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they feel good when they've played well. ☐ |

- | True
For Me | | | 148 | True
For Me |
|------------------------------|---|-----|--|--------------------------|
| 30. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because their playing pleases others important to them. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to improve their ability at the game. | ☐ |
| 31. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because it gives them a chance to get rewards. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to test their ability against other players. | ☐ |
| 32. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like doing the skills of the game. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to win. | ☐ |
| 33. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like the excitement of the game. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because it gives them a chance to be with friends. | ☐ |
| 34. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to improve their ability at the game. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they feel good when they've played well. | ☐ |
| 35. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to test their ability against other players. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because their playing pleases others important to them. | ☐ |
| 36. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to be a member of a team. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because it gives them a chance to get rewards. | ☐ |
| 37. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like the excitement of the game. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like doing the skills of the game. | ☐ |
| 38. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because it gives them a chance to be with friends. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to improve their ability at the game. | ☐ |
| 39. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they feel good when they've played well. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to test their ability against other players. | ☐ |
| 40. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because their playing pleases others important to them | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to be a member of a team. | ☐ |

- | True
For Me | | | 149 | True
For Me |
|------------------------------|---|-----|--|--------------------------|
| 41. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because it gives them a chance to get rewards. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to win. | ☐ |
| 42. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like doing the skills of the game. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because it gives them a chance to be with friends. | ☐ |
| 43. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to test their ability against other players. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to improve their ability at the game. | ☐ |
| 44. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to be a member of a team. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they feel good when they've played well. | ☐ |
| 45. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to win. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because their playing pleases others important to them. | ☐ |
| 46. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like the excitement of the game. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because it gives them a chance to get rewards. | ☐ |
| 47. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because it gives them a chance to be with friends. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to test their ability against other players. | ☐ |
| 48. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to improve their ability at the game. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to be a member of a team. | ☐ |
| 49. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because they feel good when they've played well. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like to win. | ☐ |
| 50. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because their playing pleases others important to them. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like the excitement of the game. | ☐ |
| 51. ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball because it gives them a chance to get rewards. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball because they like doing the skills of the game. | ☐ |

- | | True
For Me | | | | True
For Me |
|-----|--------------------------|---|-----|---|--------------------------|
| 52. | ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball
because they like to test their
ability against other players. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball
because they like to be a member
of a team. | ☐ |
| 53. | ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball
because they like to improve
their ability at the game. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball
because they like to win. | ☐ |
| 54. | ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball
because they feel good when
they've played well. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball
because they like the excitement
of the game. | ☐ |
| 55. | ☐ | Some boys enjoy playing baseball
because their playing pleases
others important to them. | BUT | Other boys enjoy playing baseball
because they like doing the
skills of the game. | ☐ |

WHAT I DON'T ENJOY ABOUT BASEBALL

SAMPLE SENTENCE

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Some kids don't enjoy playing baseball because the skills are too hard to do.	a	b	c	d	e

ONE THING THAT I DON'T LIKE ABOUT BASEBALL IS THAT:	S.A.	A.	U.	D.	S.D.
56. My teammates take the game too seriously.	a	b	c	d	e
57. People always want to win too much	a	b	c	d	e
58. When I play, I don't like losing.	a	b	c	d	e
59. The coach criticizes too much.	a	b	c	d	e
60. I don't like going to practices.	a	b	c	d	e
61. I sometimes get hurt.	a	b	c	d	e
62. The sport takes up too much time - I can't do other things that I like to do.	a	b	c	d	e
63. I don't like people watching me play.	a	b	c	d	e
64. I'm always waiting around during a game.	a	b	c	d	e
65. I don't get to be a part of the action very often.	a	b	c	d	e
66. Playing time and positions are not equal among team members.	a	b	c	d	e
67. I am always being compared against other players.	a	b	c	d	e
68. I am always being told what to do; I don't get much chance to do things own my own.	a	b	c	d	e
69. Some people don't play by the rules.	a	b	c	d	e
70. I don't get to play the position that I want.	a	b	c	d	e
71. My teammates don't take the game seriously.	a	b	c	d	e
72. Some of the players are too good.	a	b	c	d	e
73. Some of the players aren't good enough.	a	b	c	d	e
74. The coach doesn't know the sport very well.	a	b	c	d	e

	<u>S.A.</u>	<u>A.</u>	<u>U.</u>	<u>D.</u>	<u>S.D.</u>
75. The crowd sometimes boos or razzes us when we play.	a	b	c	d	e
76. The sport takes too much energy; I get too tired.	a	b	c	d	e
77. My teammates get mad at me if I don't play well.	a	b	c	d	e
78. My parents keep wanting me to be better than what I am.	a	b	c	d	e
79. When our team plays, the referees sometimes make bad calls.	a	b	c	d	e
80. There are some dumb rules.	a	b	c	d	e
81. I don't like playing when the weather is bad.	a	b	c	d	e

WHAT I THINK IS IMPORTANT IN PLAYING BASEBALL

True For Me	SAMPLE SENTENCES		True For Me
a. ☐	Some boys think it is important to learn the skills of the game.	BUT Other boys think it is important to have good equipment.	☐
b. ☐	Some boys think it is important to have good equipment.	BUT Other boys think it is important to be a good team member.	☐
82. ☐	Some boys think it is important to have fun playing the game.	BUT Other boys think it is important to play as well as they can.	☐
83. ☐	Some boys think it is important to play the game fairly	BUT Other boys think it is important to have fun playing the game	☐
84. ☐	Some boys think it is important to win the game--beat the other team.	BUT Other boys think it is important to play as well as they can.	☐
85. ☐	Some boys think it is important to have fun playing the game.	BUT Other boys think it is important to win the game--beat the other team.	☐
86. ☐	Some boys think it is important to play as well as they can.	BUT Other boys think it is important to play the game fairly.	☐
87. ☐	Some boys think it is important to win the game--beat the other team.	BUT Other boys think it is important to play the game fairly.	☐

FAMILY INFLUENCE ON ENJOYMENT OF BASEBALL

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To what extent do these people give you praise, encouragement, or approval for playing baseball?

	<u>NEVER</u>	<u>SOMETIMES</u>	<u>REGULARLY</u> (at least once for each game)
88. Father	_____	_____	_____
89. Mother	_____	_____	_____
90. Brother(s)	_____	_____	_____
91. Sister(s)	_____	_____	_____
92. Coach	_____	_____	_____
93. Teammates	_____	_____	_____
94. Friends	_____	_____	_____

How important is it for you to please the following people when playing baseball?

	<u>Not at all Important</u>	<u>Somewhat Important</u>	<u>Very Important</u>
95. Father	_____	_____	_____
96. Mother	_____	_____	_____
97. Brother(s)	_____	_____	_____
98. Sister(s)	_____	_____	_____
99. Coach	_____	_____	_____
100. Teammates	_____	_____	_____
101. Friends	_____	_____	_____

102. How important is baseball to your family? (Check one space only)

Not at all Important _____
Somewhat Important _____
Very Important _____

103. Do you have a sports idol in baseball? No__ Yes__
If Yes, who? _____

104. Compared to other boys your age, how good do you think you are at playing baseball?

Below Average _____
Average _____
Above Average _____

105. Do you plan to play baseball next year (season)? No__ Yes__

106. If "no", Why _____

107. What might cause you to quit playing baseball in the future?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE

PLEASE RETURN THIS BOOKLET TO THE RESEARCHER

APPENDIX B T VALUE STATISTICS OF THE LIKERT DISLIKE
STATEMENTS FOR THE SPORTS OF BASEBALL AND SOCCER

Table 19

Non-Significant¹ t Values of Likert Dislike Items for
the Sports of Soccer and Baseball

FACTOR	SPORT ²	MEAN	ST.DEV.	t VALUE	DF	2-TAIL PROB.
TEAM TOO SERIOUS	BASEBALL	2.78	1.19	-0.76	115.44	p=.447
	SOCCER	2.94	1.22			
HATE LOSING	BASEBALL	3.04	1.45	-0.94	115.33	p=.351
	SOCCER	3.29	1.49			
COACH CRITICIZES	BASEBALL	2.44	1.42	-0.60	114.73	p=.549
	SOCCER	2.60	1.44			
GET HURT	BASEBALL	2.70	1.55	-1.67	108.86	p=.097
	SOCCER	3.16	1.42			
HATE BEING WATCHED	BASEBALL	1.62	1.08	-1.83	120.67	p=.070
	SOCCER	2.01	1.30			
WAITING AROUND	BASEBALL	2.20	1.22	+1.04	105.96	p=.300
	SOCCER	1.98	1.07			
NOT PART OF ACTION	BASEBALL	1.94	1.22	-1.16	119.05	p=.248
	SOCCER	2.21	1.34			
UNEQUAL TREATMENT	BASEBALL	2.61	1.35	+0.66	114.62	p=.514
	SOCCER	2.45	1.36			
NO CHOICE POSITION	BASEBALL	2.34	1.44	-1.30	113.98	p=.196
	SOCCER	2.69	1.49			
TEAM NOT SERIOUS	BASEBALL	2.51	1.38	+0.42	106.82	p=.678
	SOCCER	2.41	1.27			
PLAYERS TOO GOOD	BASEBALL	2.23	1.35	-0.76	112.69	p=.449
	SOCCER	2.41	1.37			
PLAYERS NOT GOOD	BASEBALL	3.33	1.41	+1.49	116.92	p=.139
	SOCCER	2.94	1.49			
COACH UNKNOWNLEDGABLE	BASEBALL	1.69	0.93	-1.90	118.69	p=.060
	SOCCER	2.10	1.49			

Table 19 (continued)

FACTOR	SPORT ²	MEAN	ST.DEV.	t VALUE	DF	2-TAIL PROB.
CROWD BOOS	BASEBALL	2.48	1.46	-1.84	111.73	p=.068
	SOCCER	3.00	1.56			
TEAMMATES GET MAD	BASEBALL	3.06	1.46	-0.33	112.46	p=.739
	SOCCER	3.14	1.42			
PARENTS WANT BETTER	BASEBALL	2.07	1.23	-1.81	120.00	p=.073
	SOCCER	2.53	1.55			
BAD CALLS REF	BASEBALL	4.19	1.10	+0.08	115.31	p=.936
	SOCCER	4.17	1.12			
DUMB RULES	BASEBALL	3.19	1.48	-1.13	110.46	p=.262
	SOCCER	3.48	1.39			
BAD WEATHER	BASEBALL	3.22	1.42	-0.01	119.90	p=.990
	SOCCER	3.23	1.47			

¹The significance level was set at $p < .05$ for rejection of the null hypothesis.

²Pairwise deletion was used with this program.

APPENDIX C ONEWAY ANALYSES OF VARIANCE STATISTICS OF THE
LIKERT DISLIKE STATEMENTS FOR THE AGE DIVISIONS WITHIN THE
SPORT OF SOCCER

Table 20

Summary Analyses of Variance Tables
For Twenty-Six Dislike Factors

FACTOR	SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARES	F RATIO	PROB.
BAD CALLS REF	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	20.39	10.20	20.78	.000
	WITHIN GROUPS	109	53.46	0.49		
	TOTAL	111	73.85			
CROWD BOOS	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	15.52	7.76	10.34	.000
	WITHIN GROUPS	100	75.00	0.75		
	TOTAL	102	90.52			
TEAMMATES GET MAD	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	14.52	7.26	9.31	.000
	WITHIN GROUPS	107	83.44	0.78		
	TOTAL	109	97.96			
NO CHOICE OF POSITION	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	10.72	5.37	6.90	.002
	WITHIN GROUPS	108	83.84	0.78		
	TOTAL	110	94.56			
TEAM TOO SERIOUS	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	6.75	3.38	5.10	.008
	WITHIN GROUPS	110	72.93	0.66		
	TOTAL	112	79.68			
DUMB RULES	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	7.99	3.88	4.97	.009
	WITHIN GROUPS	110	88.46	0.80		
	TOTAL	112	96.45			

Table 20 (continued)

FACTOR	SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARES	F RATIO	PROB.
PLAYERS TOO GOOD	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	7.52	3.76	4.88	.009
	WITHIN GROUPS	109	83.87	0.77		
	TOTAL	111	91.39			
HATE PRACTICES	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	6.85	3.48	4.68	.011
	WITHIN GROUPS	109	81.01	0.74		
	TOTAL	111	87.86			
PLAYERS NOT GOOD	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	7.29	3.65	4.67	.011
	WITHIN GROUPS	109	85.13	0.78		
	TOTAL	111	92.32			
GET TOO TIRED	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	6.59	3.30	4.27	.017
	WITHIN GROUPS	107	82.72			
	TOTAL	109	89.31			
BEING COMPARED	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	3.72	1.86	2.42	.094
	WITHIN GROUPS	109	83.70	0.77		
	TOTAL	111	87.42			
SPORT TIME CONSUMING	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	2.83	1.41	2.03	.136
	WITHIN GROUPS	110	76.62	0.70		
	TOTAL	112	79.45			
GET HURT	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	3.24	1.62	1.98	.143
	WITHIN GROUPS	109	89.04	0.82		
	TOTAL	111	92.28			

Table 20 (continued)

FACTOR	SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARES	F RATIO	PROB.
PEOPLE WANT TO WIN TOO MUCH	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	2.19	1.09	1.76	.177
	WITHIN GROUPS	109	67.59	0.62		
	TOTAL	111	69.68			
UNEQUAL TREATMENT	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	2.33	1.16	1.74	.181
	WITHIN GROUPS	109	73.09	0.67		
	TOTAL	111	75.42			
PEOPLE CHEATING	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	2.09	1.05	1.64	.199
	WITHIN GROUPS	110	70.14	0.64		
	TOTAL	112	72.23			
TEAM NOT SERIOUS	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	1.94	0.97	1.38	.257
	WITHIN GROUPS	110	77.43	0.70		
	TOTAL	112	79.37			
COACH CRITICIZES	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	2.03	1.01	1.34	.267
	WITHIN GROUPS	108	81.87	0.77		
	TOTAL	110	83.90			
COACH UNKNOWN/EDGABLE	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	1.63	0.81	1.27	.285
	WITHIN GROUPS	110	70.51	0.84		
	TOTAL	112	72.14			
HATE LOSING	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	1.81	0.90	1.05	.364
	WITHIN GROUPS	109	93.91	0.86		
	TOTAL	111	95.72			

Table 20 (continued)

FACTOR	SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARES	F RATIO	PROB.
WAITING AROUND	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	0.86	0.43	0.80	.482
	WITHIN GROUPS	109	58.82	0.54		
	TOTAL	111	59.68			
BAD WEATHER	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	1.18	0.59	0.68	.501
	WITHIN GROUPS	110	95.72	0.87		
	TOTAL	112	96.90			
PARENTS WANT THE ATHLETE TO BE BETTER	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	0.78	0.40	0.48	.623
	WITHIN GROUPS	107	88.81	0.83		
	TOTAL	109	89.59			
NOT PART OF ACTION	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	0.30	0.15	0.22	.806
	WITHIN GROUPS	110	75.31	0.69		
	TOTAL	112	75.61			
BEING ORDERED ABOUT	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	0.87	0.44	0.51	.605
	WITHIN GROUPS	110	94.63	0.86		
	TOTAL	112	94.50			
HATE BEING WATCHED	BETWEEN GROUPS	2	0.18	0.88	0.14	.867
	WITHIN GROUPS	110	67.58	0.61		
	TOTAL	112	67.76			

APPENDIX D CORRESPONDENCE WITH THE EDMONTON MINOR SOCCER
ASSOCIATION

Phil Kreisel
Dept. of Recreation Admin.
U of A
April 3, 1981

Mr. George Hallett
c/o Edmonton Minor Soccer Association,
10070-151 Street,
Edmonton, Alta.

Dear Mr. Hallett:

I am writing to you and your Association in regard to a study that I am doing as part of the program requirements for my graduate degree in Recreation Administration at the University of Alberta. My study is focusing on what young children like and dislike about soccer. Greater numbers of youngsters are involved in this sport each year, yet no one has attempted to find out what they enjoy about the sport that they participate in. Moreover, previous studies have tended to focus on the more negative aspects of minor sport, particularly dealing with why children drop out of sport. I'm focusing on the positive aspects of sport, since many children are involved in these programmes.

I would like to appeal to the E.M.S.A. for your support in this study. An endorsement, indicating your support, on the E.M.S.A. letterhead would aid in my completion of this worthwhile project. For your convenience, I have drafted a sample letter indicating the type of support the E.M.S.A. could give for the study. Feel free to make any changes that you feel are necessary. In addition, I have enclosed an EARLIER sample of the questionnaire that the participants will complete for the study. The questionnaire takes approximately 1 hour (per team) to complete. Minor revisions in wording are currently being made to improve the instrument (i.e. the technical wording is being removed, and being replaced by words that youngsters can more easily understand.

I sincerely hope that you will consider providing me with a covering letter supporting the study. Thank you very much for your attention.

Yours Sincerely,

Phil Kreisel
Phil Kreisel

B.A.



EDMONTON MINOR SOCCER ASSOCIATION

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10070 - 151 Street
EDMONTON, Alberta T5P 1Y3

Telephone (403) 483-1511

March 6, 1981

Mr. Phil Kreisel
Department of Recreation Administration
University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta

Dear Phil,

Please find enclosed some information on minor soccer in Edmonton and some brochures etc. on youth soccer in Canada. There are two excellent resource people in Edmonton you may wish to contact regarding your study, Bert Goldberger is the Technical Director for the Alberta Soccer Association and one of their programs is a summer school for players in the age group you indicated also the new Administrative Director for the Alberta Soccer Association, Kevan Pipe may be able to supply you with further information. Kevan was the Director for the Canadian Youth Soccer Association up until February of this year and I am sure could provide you with some valuable information.

If I can be of any further assistance please feel free to contact me at 483-1511.

Good luck with your study.

Yours truly,

George Hallett
Administrative Assistant
Edmonton Minor Soccer Association

Encl.

P.S. The telephone number of the Alberta Soccer Association is 458-7111. (Percy Page Centre, St. Albert)



EDMONTON

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MINOR SOCCER ASSOCIATION

10070 - 151 Street
EDMONTON, Alberta T5P 1Y3

Telephone (403) 483-1511

April 22nd, 1981

Mr. Phil Kreisel,
Dept. of Recreation Admin.,
University of Alberta,
EDMONTON, Alberta.

Dear Phil:

Please find enclosed a covering letter from E.M.S.A. in support of your study. We would like to wish you well with your study, and ask that a copy of your completed study be forwarded to the Edmonton Minor Soccer Association office for our records and to aid in further program improvements.

It is our understanding that the interview you will be using will be very close to the one forwarded to the E.M.S.A. office on April 3rd, 1981, and the covering letter of our support is given to you on the understanding that you will advise this office of any major changes in the interview questions.

If we can be of further assistance please let me know.

Looking forward to seeing your completed results.

Yours truly,

George Hallett
George Hallett,
Administrative Assistant.



EDMONTON

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MINOR SOCCER ASSOCIATION

10070 - 151 Street
EDMONTON, Alberta T5P 1Y3

Telephone (403) 483-1511

April 22nd, 1981.

Dear Coach and Parent:

As you know, the Edmonton Minor Soccer Association is an autonomous voluntary body dedicated to the promotion and improvement of soccer among the youth of Edmonton. This is accomplished through our organized community league programs, which gives your children an opportunity to properly learn and play the game of soccer. In addition to this, the Association feels that equal importance should be placed on the enjoyment aspect that each child derives from his participation in the sport.

The study that Phil Kreisel is undertaking as part of the program requirements for his graduate degree in Recreation Administration at the University of Alberta will examine the likes and dislikes that the players have about the sport of soccer. The information that he will obtain will serve to enhance the importance of the soccer programs currently in existence.

I would like to take this opportunity to encourage you and your team to assist him by taking part in what the Edmonton Minor Soccer Association feels is a very worthwhile study.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read "Roger Hildebrandt".

Roger Hildebrandt,
President.